

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE impeachment business apparently makes progress, though the formal investigation has not yet commenced. Mr. Ashley is presenting his *prima facie* case, but we believe nothing or next to nothing is known of his proofs. The reports as to the probable action of the House are very conflicting. Business men who come back from Washington, as a general rule, say there will be no impeachment; while politicians are generally satisfied that there will; and the press is very silent. Meanwhile, the President is giving what the reporters call "state dinners," which, we presume, are something very fine, and has, it is said, invited Messrs. Ashley and Boutwell, having come upon them in their alphabetical order.

THE Senate Tenure of Office bill has passed the Senate and gone to the House, where it has been amended by subjecting cabinet officers to its operation, and making them, as well as all other functionaries, removable only with the advice and consent of the Senate. This bill is undoubtedly one of the most valuable of those of which Mr. Johnson's folly has furnished the occasion, and, coupled with Mr. Jenckes's, would do all that legislation can do for the purification of our politics. The provision with regard to cabinet officers does not make them responsible to the Senate, because as long as the President is responsible they need not be, but it gives the Senate the revision of the President's reasons for removing them. The cabinet officers in America are, in spite of the importance of their duties, clerks of the Executive, and not, as they are in England, the constitutional advisers of an irresponsible ruler; so that the arguments which have been put forward in some quarters in favor of their having seats in Congress in order to defend themselves or explain their conduct, seem to us to have much less force than is claimed for them, even in view of the pending change. The proper weapons of an American official, when assailed, are pen, ink, and paper. A secretary who cannot confound his enemies on a quire of foolscap, may fairly despair of doing it on his legs in either branch of the legislature. The exception in the bill is said to be made for the benefit of Mr. Stanton, but whatever effect the measure may have on his political fortunes, it will hereafter render the desertion of his party by a President all but impossible.

THE Tariff bill has got down to the House, where the Senate "amendments" are now under consideration. We hope it may pass with a considerable increase of all the imposts, because we are satisfied that nothing but actual experience of the effect of this kind of legislation through several years will rouse the country into resistance to it. After what has occurred since 1864, we do not believe argument is of much use. We now venture to predict, and we beg our readers to keep it in mind, and if we prove wrong to throw it in our teeth, that the condition of trade and industry will be in no way improved by the present tariff; that during the coming year it will, on the contrary, grow steadily worse, and that next spring and summer all, or nearly all, the interests for whose benefit the present tariff has been framed will be clamoring in the lobby for still higher duties. We are, therefore, in favor of having the experiment fully tried. We feel just as sure of how it will end as we do of the position of the earth in the solar system, although Cardinal Cullen has on several occasions, in a Roman literary journal, exploded the popular Copernican ideas on this subject.

THE bill punishing certain offences in relation to the currency has been passed, but we fear it will prove inoperative, to a great extent at least, owing to Mr. Johnson's tenderness for this species of crime.

MR. JOHNSON, Mr. Sharkey, Mr. Orr, and some other gentlemen are reported to have been hard at work lately devising a plan of reconstruction—we beg their pardon, restoration—which is to become the successor and heir of the President's late policy, and to take the place of all constitutional amendments and other Congressional schemes for giving us national peace. Only hints of what the plan is to be have as yet escaped; but apparently the North is, at any rate, to admit by implication that the South is in a position to treat with the Government, and there is to be no extortion by the United States of irrevocable guarantees of any kind from the States of the former Confederacy. It remains to be seen whether the proposition will even be entertained. For that matter, it remains to be seen whether it will ever even be made. It may be a weak invention of the reporters.

GENERAL GRANT is said to have called a meeting of army officers to consult together upon the necessity of maintaining garrisons in the Southern States. General Grant, it is understood, would like them to be withdrawn. Mr. Williams, of Oregon, offers a bill providing that each State which has been in rebellion shall constitute a military district, in charge of a major-general or brigadier-general, whose duty it shall be, in brief, to exercise an authority paramount to that of all courts in the State. The bill further provides that United States courts may issue writs of *habeas corpus* in behalf of prisoners in military custody in the South only when some commissioned officer on duty in the district where the prisoner is held shall endorse upon the petition a statement certifying that he believes the imprisonment wrongful. To us it seems that the question which of these two plans shall be adopted, is answered when an answer is given to this question: Shall the United States protect from tyrannical abuse, from the most galling and open injustice, those citizens of the South who were and are loyal, and who alone are loyal, or shall it give them over helpless into the hands of people like this man, for instance, who writes in the *Richmond Times*, the most popular newspaper in Virginia? It is one expression of opinion out of a million similar, or only different in being worse. Texas is the subject of eulogy:

"There the negroes have not been demoralized by the Freedmen's Bureau and the school-marms. The climate, too, of this magnificent State, although salubrious in the extreme, has been found unhealthy to the few straggling Yankee letter-writers and meddling negrophilists who have ventured there in quest of mischief. They have, in many instances, when they

have stirred up ill-feeling between the races, been mysteriously devoured by wolves and bears, or scalped by the Comanches. The settlers in Texas have bitterly deplored those accidents, but they have not been able to prevent them."

The passage of the bill would, of course, be in effect a declaration of the opinion of Congress that the state of war is not ended, and for that, as well as the other reason, we are free to say we should be glad to see the bill pass.

A FRIEND of Mr. Sumner's thinks we have misrepresented that gentleman in saying, as we did in a recent number, that he had declared in the Senate "that the whole North was eager for impeachment." We only seek to give in our weekly summary the impression which the speeches on which we comment make on an average understanding. Mr. Sumner, in his speech on the Tenure of Office Bill, accused the President of "usurpation in the interest of the rebellion." He said also: "The President has usurped the power of Congress on a colossal scale, and has employed these usurped powers in fomenting a rebel spirit and awakening anew the dying fires of the rebellion. This is the great and unpardonable offence for which history will condemn him if you do not," and so on. As to the remedy for this state of things, he said: "There is not a mail which does not bring letters without number supplicating the exercise of all the powers of Congress against the President. There is not a newspaper which does not exhibit evidence that you are already tardy in this work of necessity." Now, when an orator says that every mail brings innumerable letters asking Congress to use "all its powers" against an usurper in league with the public enemy, and that every newspaper shows that Congress ought to have sooner begun this work of necessity, we think it is not unfair to conclude that the speaker meant in plain English that the great majority of the Northern people—or, to use the common exaggeration, "the whole North"—wanted to have Andrew Johnson impeached. If, however, Mr. Sumner did not mean to say this, we can only express our regret for having imputed it to him.

THE *Evening Post* seems to think that we have in some way changed our opinions on the reconstruction question since last summer. We are afraid this insinuation indicates want of that familiarity with our files which every good citizen ought to possess. We have maintained ever since THE NATION was started that reconstruction was the work of Congress and not of the President, and that Mr. Johnson, in assuming it, was guilty of usurpation; and we take leave to say that we drew attention to this fact, so far as we know, before any other journal in the country, and when a good many Radicals, who now want to impeach him, wanted him to play the dictator. We have maintained that the negro ought to have the franchise, if, for no other reason, for his own protection, and that the franchise ought to be accompanied by education; that all men are entitled to equality before the law, and that the General Government has no right to collect taxes or exact allegiance of a people whom it cannot or will not protect against violence or oppression; that all attempts to take vengeance on the Southern people, or inflict on them any disabilities which were not clearly necessary to the restoration of order, the security of the Government, and the establishment of justice, are impolitic, unstatesmanlike, unchristian, and inhuman. It is not possible to lay down this last doctrine in stronger language than we laid it down in THE NATION of July 12, 1866, and we have never ceased to reiterate it when the occasion offered. All these positions we still hold and shall continue to hold, but we have never "screamed" about them; in fact, it is our invincible repugnance to "screaming" about political questions which has caused most of whatever obloquy THE NATION has incurred.

AMONGST the memorable things which the pressure on our space prevented us from noticing in our last number was the confession of the New York *Tribune* that calling a man a "liar" in political discussion was a "gross indecency," "an outrageous offence against the common decency of society," and that "to refuse to censure such a breach of decency is in effect to sanction it." There has been no worse offender in this particular in the civilized world than the *Tribune*; no journal of equal literary and moral character has done as much to teach those who read it and admire it that coarse and vulgar abuse of

a political opponent was harmless; and thus far, therefore, its influence has been decidedly barbarizing. This sudden conversion is the most important triumph the friends of decency have achieved for many a day, but we have always felt it was sure to come sooner or later. The world does not go backwards, and Rome was not built in a day.

On the 1st of this month, at Hoboken, peace was declared between the Camden and Amboy and New Jersey Railroad Companies. The public at large may expect war more vigorous than ever. For twelve years, more or less, these two great corporations have been fighting—the Camden and Amboy for the completion of its road at the end nearest New York, the New Jersey for the extension of its road at the Philadelphia end; neither having absolute control of a through route between Philadelphia and New York. Uniting their forces whenever it was necessary to carry a scheme beneficial to them both through the Legislature, jointly making and unmaking governors and U. S. senators, even so closely connected in respect to other things as to seem to the general public almost one corporation, the two companies have, nevertheless, been at daggers drawn. The good name of New Jersey has suffered from the vassalage in which the State has been kept; the travelling public has been shamefully abused and imposed upon; but there has hitherto always been the consolation that the one tyrant kept the other in check. The treaty of Hoboken has taken away that comfort. Hereafter both the two will work in union; and their powers are not simply added together, but multiplied many times. Competition has utterly failed to protect us, and Congress is the only source whence the people—for a new road from New York to the southward is a matter of national concern—can expect help. That Congress has all the necessary power to act, we have already, as we think, shown conclusively.

A WRITER in the Boston *Advertiser* has recently taken occasion to point to the prize offered by THE NATION to the person who shall, under certain conditions, send us in the largest number of subscribers, as proof that we are resorting to a species of lottery in aid of our business. We acknowledged some time ago that the *Advertiser's* philosophical method was capable of great things when applied to social phenomena, but remarked that it required very delicate handling. In this instance it has left the investigator in ignorance of what, even to the feeble mind of the general public, seems a very obvious distinction. The essence of a lottery lies in the fact that the purchaser of a "ticket" gives nothing for it but a small sum of money, and that whether he will get the prize or not depends, literally, on blind chance—the drawing of a number from a revolving wheel by a blind man or a child. Neither skill, industry, foresight, nor intelligence can affect the result in the smallest degree. The moral and social objections to lotteries are, therefore, the well-known ones which are urged against all gambling. What we have done, however, is to apply to the ordinary practice of paying commissions to persons who send us in subscribers the principle on which all competitive examinations are based. All we ask of a competitor is that he shall do a greater amount of hard work for our benefit than a certain number of other people. There is nothing in the matter of which he may not make sure except the amount of work or the measure of ability possessed by other competitors. Now, this is exactly the plan which is followed at all competitive examinations for prizes in colleges or places in the public service, in the case of prizes offered for essays, and architectural drawings, all over the world. Each candidate is required, in utter ignorance both of the number of those who will appear against him and of the nature of their qualifications, to do his best, and does not know until all is over what others have accomplished. Without uncertainty there would, of course, be no competition for anything. Most of the good things of life, wives included, are won in this way; and we know of no way in which this sort of lottery can be abolished except by the encouragement of a good breed of fortune-tellers, who, by letting everybody know what is going to happen to him, will save him the necessity of all useless exertion.

TWENTY-TWO of the Fenians captured in Canada have been tried and convicted, twenty have been acquitted, forty-nine escaped by rea-



son of insufficient evidence or because no bill was found, three are awaiting trial, and twelve have been discharged upon bail. Stephens is one day said to be here and another day there. We believe, however, that the truth as to his whereabouts is that he is now at sea in a steamship of the French line between New York and Havre, having been escorted down the harbor about a week since by a party of friends who accompanied him from Brooklyn, where he spent the last of his stay in America, and who returned to this city in the pilot-boat when the steamer's voyage was fairly commenced. The ways of Fenianism are past finding out, and we attempt no explanation of the fact that the accompanying friendly party was in part composed of persons instrumental in the deposition of the C. O. I. R.

THE laconic Cable has announced in a single line such social revolutions as the actual abolition of capital punishment in Italy by the National Parliament, and in France the speedy prospect of abolishing imprisonment for debt. Italy is, we apprehend, the only country in Europe in which the death penalty is not employed with more or less frequency. Russia, with a singularity quite remarkable, was for many years a shining example to the contrary, though the substitute which she offered for the gallows would probably seldom have been the free choice of the culprit. It was one of countless contradictions in a nation which cherished at the same time the knout and tolerated slavery everywhere but in the dictionary. We may perhaps concede to the opponents of capital punishment that crime diminishes when the punishment is removed; but we shall still desire to be assured by an experiment in which the commutation to imprisonment for life shall be certainly and inflexibly enforced, and when the criminal whom to-day we think worthy to be hung, and to-morrow to end his days in prison, shall not, on the third day, by Executive pardon, be let loose upon the community.

THERE is the greatest distress prevailing in England and on the Continent. The bad harvest of last year, the monetary crisis in England, and the extraordinary severity of the winter, are combining to produce an amount of suffering unknown since 1847. Thousands of skilled laborers in London, who are ordinarily able to earn two or three pounds a week, are breaking stones for bare food. Much the same phenomena are witnessed on the Continent. The political effect of this state of things in England is likely to be favorable to reform; and, in fact, the Queen's speech at the opening of Parliament on Tuesday, both announces a commission to enquire into the organizations of workmen and employers, with a view to improvement of the existing laws, and commits the Derby Government to a "free extension" of the elective franchise.

THE resignation of Count Belcredi, its acceptance by the Emperor of Austria, and the appointment of the foreign minister, Von Beust, to be president of the council of state, signify a victory won in behalf of a more liberal statecraft over the party of tradition and the *status quo*; and the credit of this, we suppose, belongs to the promoted minister. The development of his policy has been curiously, perhaps in some quarters of Europe anxiously, awaited, and thus far there has been little to show of achievement and little of promise on the part of Von Beust. But to have separated Francis Joseph from his idols is a monument of labor, at least, if not of high ability; and we shall soon see what the new favorite can accomplish for Hungary, and what he proposes to do to brace the empire to meet the impending "Eastern question."

THE Papal Government is, characteristically enough, abusing its last shred of power, in the last days of its wretched existence, by prohibiting Protestant worship in Rome, even in the houses of the foreign ministers. The act has, of course, called forth the strongest denunciations from the press of all civilized countries; but, as might have been expected, it has found defenders in the Fenian organs of this city, who claim for the Pope the same rights in the whole of Rome that Catholics have in their cathedral here; that is, a man may have a right to live and earn his bread in a place where he may not have the right to worship God in his own fashion. We commend this incident to the *Tribune* and General Banks as a good thing to praise for the sake of the Fenian vote.

#### THE FREEDMEN.

THE result of the investigation of Gen. Sewall, Bureau Inspector, and Hon. W. S. Mason, of Raleigh, into the alleged illegal apprenticing of colored children in North Carolina, is, that the facts warrant the charge; that the children were bound under unlawful indentures, without consulting their parents or allowing them to protest in court. The commissioners recommend the repeal of such provisions of the law of apprenticeship as make discriminations on account of color. A bill to this effect has been introduced into the Legislature, and Gov. Worth is said to favor its passage.

—There is considerable mobility among the laboring population of North Carolina. Scarcity of work and abundance of destitution have induced many of the freedmen to emigrate under contract to Texas, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Tennessee. A movement has also taken place between Roanoke Island and the mainland, that colony having been reduced one-half since last September. This is in consequence of official orders, and is accomplished gradually, that the colonists may not suffer. The New Year dawned upon 118 schools, 122 teachers, and 3,941 pupils in North Carolina.

—The disturbance on the Cheves plantation, South Carolina, culminated on the 30th ult. in a collision in which a lieutenant of the Bureau was shot in the arm and one negro killed. The immediate causes have not transpired.

—The freedmen of Florida are seemingly prosperous, and are very generally renewing their contracts. Their number is constantly increased by arrivals from the adjoining States. The blacks among the Indian tribes of the Everglades are still held in servitude, and have appealed to the military for assistance.

—On the 31st January, the Alabama House of Representatives passed a bill to establish a public-school system, applicable to blacks and whites alike, except that the schools are not to be in common.

—The demand for labor in Mississippi is sufficient to attract immigration. Wages of \$10 to \$15 a month, with rations, quarters, and medical attendance, are the temptations to freedmen. The latter are industrious, and would be quite contented, except for their being prohibited by law from holding or owning real estate and from carrying fire-arms. Their schools are in good condition. Joseph Davis, a brother of Jefferson, is said to have written a recommendation of his late chattel, Mr. Benjamin F. Montgomery, to the office of postmaster at Davis Bend, he having "discharged the duties of that place from 1855 to 1861, a white man holding the appointment."

—The freedmen in Texas are unrestricted in making contracts. Military officers, in districts where there are no sub-assistant commissioners of the Bureau, are empowered, by a recent order of Gen. Griffin, to act as such. In this way the authority of the Bureau has been greatly extended.

—Obion County, in Tennessee, continues to be the scene of great lawlessness and savagery. In Logan County the blacks are miserably persecuted by "regulators," who plunder, beat, and assassinate at their infernal pleasure. The following is a copy of one species of their torments—a handbill posted in various localities:

#### I AM COMMITTEE.

1. No man shall squat negroes on his place unless they are all under his employ, male and female.
2. Negro women shall be employed by white persons.
3. All children shall be hired out for something.
4. Negroes found in cabins to themselves shall suffer the penalty.
5. Negroes shall not be allowed to hire negroes.
6. Idle men, women, or children shall suffer the penalty.
7. All white men found with negroes in secret places shall be dealt with, and those that hire negroes must pay promptly, and act with good faith to the negro. I will make the negro do his part, and the white must, too.
8. For the first offence is 100 lashes—the second is looking up a sapling.
9. This I do for the benefit of all, young or old, high and tall, black and white. Any one that may not like these rules may try their luck, and see whether or not I will be found doing my duty.
10. Negroes found stealing from any one, or taking from their employers to other negroes, death is the first penalty.
11. Running about late of nights shall be strictly dealt with.
12. White men and negroes, I am everywhere. I have friends in every place. Do your duty, and I will have but little to do.

## Notes.

## LITERARY.

SOME hitherto unpublished letters of Lord Chesterfield have been lately printed in the *Athenæum*, all but one of which are addressed to his niece Gertrude, the wife of Mr. Welbore Ellis Agar. They put in no more favorable light Lord Chesterfield's morality, which has been the subject of so many diatribes, but are filled with pleasant, easy gossip on the people of the time, many of whom were distinguishing themselves in unenviable ways. One of these letters shows us that the earl's sobriety, which has been so much praised by his eulogists as an exceedingly great virtue in days when drunkenness was positively in fashion, was less owing to a religious disposition or good taste than to a weak stomach. He made a virtue of necessity, and gave up wine in order to cure himself of the vertigo.

—Victor Cousin, one of the most distinguished of modern philosophers, is dead, at the age of seventy-four. He was born in Paris in 1792, and early distinguished himself at school. In 1812 he was made assistant professor of Greek in the Normal School; in 1814, master of the conferences; and in 1815, deputy professor of philosophy in the Sorbonne, to succeed Royer-Collard. In 1820 his lectures were suspended on account of the supposed anti-monarchical tendencies of his views on free-will. After the revolution of 1830 he was restored to his chair, made a Councillor of State, a member of the Council of Public Instruction, was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor, and was elected a member of the French Academy. He was subsequently made a peer of France, and director of the Normal School, in which capacity he reorganized the whole system of primary instruction in France. In 1840 he sat in the Thiers cabinet as Minister of Public Instruction. His works are very numerous. He translated Plato, and Tennemann's "History of Philosophy," published many series of lectures on philosophy, and a series of studies on Jacqueline Pascal, Mme. de Longueville, Mme. de Sablé, and other great Frenchwomen. Translations of several of his philosophical works have been published in this country.

—Mr. Henry Bradshaw, of the Cambridge University Library, has made two noteworthy discoveries in that library. He has found some fragments of a Troy Book, written by John Barbour, the Scottish poet, intermixed with Lydgate's poem, in all about 2,200 lines. The evidence leaves not the slightest doubt of the authorship. Subsequently, in a MS. at Oxford, Mr. Bradshaw found 1,200 lines more of the same poem. The other finding is 40,000 lines of "Lives of the Saints," also by John Barbour. Were all librarians of English libraries as industrious as Mr. Bradshaw, many more valuable relics would doubtless be brought to light.

—Mr. R. Morris has done a very useful work for students of the English language in the book which has just been published as one of the Clarendon Press series, "Specimens of Early English, selected from the chief English Authors, A.D. 1250-1400; with Grammatical Introduction, Notes, and Glossary." A book of this kind has long been needed for our colleges and higher schools, and even advanced students have never before had the results of late study on the earlier English writers thus compactly set forth. Mr. Morris has noted and classified with great care the specialties of the early dialects, arranging them under the three heads of Northern, Midland, and Southern. The outlines of the Early English grammar are, however, based on the Southern dialect only. To each declension and conjugation is added the Anglo-Saxon one from which it was degraded, so that its origin is clearly seen. After treating all the parts of speech, Mr. Morris introduces a set of sentences as exercises on the grammar, and then begins his specimens. These include passages from every important work of the period, and are very fully and correctly annotated, with a complete glossary. It is proposed by the Oxford University Press to issue as a companion volume to this of Mr. Morris's a series of extracts illustrating the manners and customs of Early England. The idea is to make another chrestomathy of Early English, which shall give the boy or student the fullest possible picture of English home-life in the Middle Ages.

—Memoirs, even if they bring to light no new historical facts, are

always interesting, because they are animated by the life of the time of which they speak, and reflect its character and paint the peculiar views of an actor in them. History rectifies their errors of detail, but the general impression remains in the mind, and we cannot thoroughly understand any epoch and its men unless we have studied them both in the historians and in the memoirs. The writer of the memoirs may not have genius, but he is not less troubled by the agitations of his age, and even if he does not write with art, through the brokenness of his style, or even the dryness of his narration, we catch sight of the man, and can reconstruct his individuality itself, independent of the details the book contains—a new index of the times gone by. It is for this reason that there is great interest in the "Journal d'un curé ligueur de Paris, sous les trois derniers Valois," which M. Edouard de Barthélemy has unearthed and annotated, and published by Didier, at Paris. It gives useful indications of the time, and especially expresses well the feeling of intolerance which was its most salient characteristic. Its author, Jehan de la Fosse, was priest of the Church of St. Barthélemy, in the centre of old Paris, just opposite the Palace. He was attached to the League and followed it with approbation in all its excesses. Zealous and ardent, he set no bound to his fanaticism and his hatred of heresy, and was opposed to every compromise or movement towards conciliation. He approves of and finds a sort of comfort in the numerous executions. He relates with a visible satisfaction the death of Jeanne d'Albret, and he does not neglect to tell us, letting it be thought an instance of divine punishment, that the Queen of Navarre died after having prevented the procession of the Fête-Dieu from passing her windows, "la maladie luy prit," he adds, "et en mourut le lundy d'après." The massacre of St. Bartholomew seems to him a very ordinary event, and there is reason to suppose that in the general excitement and trouble this horrible day did not have the importance that history has since so justly given it. Jehan de la Fosse speaks of it as a simple episode of the disturbed times: "Il y eust ce jour là, qui estoit le jour de Saint-Barthélemy, plusieurs grands seigneurs tués, lesquels avoient fait la mesme faulte que l'amiral. . . . Il y eust en ce jour beaucoup, tant hommes que femmes, tués et jetés à la rivière." The death of Coligny he relates in its minutest circumstances, plainly showing that he was an eye-witness of the indignities offered to the body. His fury continued through the reign of Henry III., opposing all that king's mild measures, and thus records his death: "Le Ice doût fut tué Henri de Valois, par un simple religieux des Jacobins nommé frère Jacques Clément, natif de Paris, et ce par permission divine, considéré que ledict de Valois estoit de son naturel fort cruel et vindicatif, ne respirant aultre chose en son cœur que mauvaieseté et vengeance, principalement contre la ville de Paris dès le jour des Barricades." These terrible twenty-seven years taught him nothing; he refused to recognize Henry IV. as king, and was expelled from Paris. Here his journal ends, and all other trace of him is lost.

—The new German Christmas publications have not been so noteworthy this year as usual. Of the illustrated works the best is the "Journey in Pictures," a series of eighteen well-executed chromolithographs designed by Hermine Stilke. The traveller, starting in spring-time from an imaginary lake in Germany, is conducted by his pleasing courier through the Hartz and along the Rhine to Switzerland, thence through Italy by way of Rome and Naples, back towards Salzburg and Prague, returning home in the depth of winter. The name of the "Düsseldorf Artists' Album" has been changed to the "German Artists' Album," as the present volume (XVI.) of that well-known annual contains contributions from many artists who have never been connected with the Düsseldorf school. The two books which are attracting the most attention are the "Dörchläuting," a narrative in the Mecklenburg dialect by Herr Reuter, and Freytag's "Mittelalter." The first is one of those books of which one can give no idea except by quotations. Absolutely without plot, it is only a series of pictures, to which the quaint dialect in which it is written has given a pleasing vividness. The "Mittelalter," by Gustav Freytag, is introductory to his already published "Bilder aus der deutschen Vergangenheit" and "Neue Bilder aus dem Leben des deutschen Volkes." As these are being translated into English, we shall soon have an opportunity of reading them and of forming our own opinions. It is to be



hoped that their English interpreter will do his work more skilfully than the one who rendered "Soll und Haben" into "Debit and Credit."

—A new edition of the "Compendium der vergleichenden Grammatik der Indo-germanischen Sprachen" (Compendium of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages), by Professor Schleicher, of Jena, has just been published. To be out of print in less than two years after publication is a rare honor for a scientific book in Germany. Professors Kuhn, Curtius, of Leipzig, and Meyer have assisted the author in the preparation of this new edition, which contains quite material alterations, especially in regard to the word formation of the old Bactrian and Persian languages. The first volume of Professor Bopp's new edition of his "Sanscritum Glossarium" is out; the second will appear early next year. The great advances made in the study of Sanscrit during the twenty years that the old edition has been in use have, of course, demanded an entire revision of the text. A new impression of his "Comparative Grammar," translated into English by Mr. Thomas Wright, and into French by M. Bréal, is also promised. The interesting fragment of Bhagavati, discovered by Prof. Weber, is said to show that the Jaina religion differs from the other Indian religions *in toto*. A number of Roman inscriptions has been uncovered at government expense at Tria, on the Rhine. That they are not original, and that their forger knew so little of Latin that he has made many grammatical mistakes, has been quite conclusively shown by Professors Mommsen, of Berlin, and Brambe, of Freiburg (Baden). The latter has just published a very readable "Sammlung der römischen Inschriften im Rheinland" (Collection of the Roman Inscriptions in the Rhine Countries). The latest text-books are two Latin grammars, by Professor Neue, of Dorpat, in Russia, and by Professor Bücheler, of Greifswald. A new edition of Professor Curtius's "Griechische Etymologie" is in press.

—The small remnant of the past generation of Berlin men of the town lead lately the announcement of the death of Herr Kranzler, whose *café*, during the quarter of a century preceding 1850, was their rendezvous. Situated in the most frequented part of "Unter den Linden," and protected, by the standing of its customers, from all intrusion of lewd fellows of the baser sort, Kranzler's conditorei was even as far back as 1820 the favorite resort of the beaux and wits of the city. While they sipped their coffee or chocolate after dinner, outside in summer and behind the windows in winter, they discussed till 1830 the merits and demerits of Roman Catholicism and Protestantism. About 1830 literary matters began to supply them absorbing themes; then a new opera, a new play, or even a new song, or a new ballet dancer, was sufficient to arouse them all. About 1837 it became *à la mode* to talk of Hegel, and to puzzle one another with questions suggested by his subtle theories. Kranzler's friends had become weary of this unsubstantial pabulum when '48 came with its queries and suggestions. After the uprising in 1848, political discussions were tabooed in open places, so the pleasant corner was resigned to the officers of the guard, who have passed it over to bankers and merchants. Every now and then some old gentleman revisits the place, and, as he comes away, speaks with a sneer of the conversations he now hears of stock companies and of inventions, of which the old habitués never spoke or knew. Those pleasant reunions are things of yore, and though many could be found willing to take the mantle of him who did so much to make them pleasant, none could wear it now.

#### EDUCATIONAL.

WE have read with more than common interest the third annual report (1866) of the Superintendent of Free Schools in the State of West Virginia. Extraordinary difficulties beset the establishment of a good school system in this newly-organized commonwealth. The war, the deranged currency, the poor schools already in existence, the scattered population of many extended districts, the absence of books and newspapers, and the general apathy in respect to intellectual culture, were a part of the obstacles which embarrassed the friends of progress. Judging from the report, the lead has been taken by the right sort of men. Three hundred and fifteen school-houses were erected during the year, and two hundred more are in progress. A normal school, teachers'

institutes, an educational journal, and a State board for the examination of teachers, are demanded. To induce teachers to establish themselves in the less attractive districts, it is proposed to offer teachers homesteads at low prices. The greatest difficulty of all is to secure local school officers competent and efficient.

The city of Wheeling has for some years past stood well in educational matters, and its example is likely to be of value throughout the State. We wish every one of the Southern States could show as good a beginning in the way of public instruction as this rising State. The boldness with which the phrase "free schools" is made a part of the official title of the department, instead of the more usual terms "public schools" and "common schools," is a significant sign of "the freedom" now enjoyed by a community long fettered.

—The sixth biennial report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois presents the statistics for 1865-6. The expenditures in these years were above seven and a half million dollars, nearly four and a half million having been spent in 1866. The number of pupils in the schools, in proportion to the whole number of persons between six and twenty-one years of age, was a little larger in the latter year than in the former. The re-employment of male teachers in schools which, owing to the demands of the war, were put under charge of women, accounts for an increase of 653 in the number of masters, while the number of female teachers became less by 389. Private schools have decreased thirteen per cent., while graded schools have increased twenty per cent. The number of pupils in public and private schools is about 635,000 for 1866. The number of districts is a little less than in 1865. The Superintendent, Hon. Newton Bateman, strongly urges the adoption of the township as the unit for school affairs. Thirty-eight thousand officers are required to carry on the present system. The need of added help in the Superintendent's office (no deputy has ever been allowed in that great State), agricultural colleges, the relation of colleges to public schools, the Normal University, are among the topics here vigorously discussed.

#### BAYARD TAYLOR IN COLORADO.\*

MR. ROSS BROWNE, we believe, is afraid, at any rate he represents himself as being afraid, to return on his old track of travel and go back to the people of Nevada and other Rocky Mountain districts. Another and greater Browne, A. Ward, is, if we are not mistaken, persuaded in his own mind that it would be highly inexpedient for him to revisit the Land of the Honey Bee or to ride again across the Plains. We fear that the population at various points along the route of Mr. Bowles look on that excellent traveller as a calumniator and regard him with undissembled hostility. For our far Western people hotly resent the telling of harsh truths about them and their domain, and would have none but good accounts of them go forth to their fellow-countrymen and the rest of mankind. This desire, said to be strong in all Americans, is in the breast of the Western man particularly strong. He loves the place of his residence—too often "he loves and he rides away"—with a proud fondness, a fervor of affection that seems nearly unaccountable. Among us of the seaboard, only the Bostonians, we imagine, can be compared in this respect with the more permanent residents of Chicago or Cincinnati, or St. Louis or Buckskin Joe, or Black Hawk or Golden City or Central City, or whatever other cities are "bound to be the biggest in the whole West, sir." The reasons for this state of feeling we do not propose to seek. As for Mr. Taylor, the latest traveller into those parts, we should say that if he wants to live honored and die happy, he could not do better than fix his future abode in Colorado or any other point west of the Mississippi. He displays an admiration for that region which must make him a host of friends there. For instance, the liberality of sentiment displayed in the following passage ought to procure for him, from every journal in the mining districts, the encomium of being "a most genial critic and acute observer" of Western life and manners:

"The people pointed out to me a tree to which some of them had hung a Mexican, last week, on account of an attempted assault upon two ladies of the place. The criminal was taken from the sheriff's hands and lynched; and the few remaining Mexican residents, who appear to have had no fellowship with him, are ordered to leave the place. Affairs of this kind make an unpleasant impression."

About "square meals," which appear to consist mainly of pork-fat fried

\* "Colorado: A Summer Trip. By Bayard Taylor." New York: G. P. Putnam & Son. 1867. 12mo, pp. 135.

brown, coffee black and strong, and biscuits described by the Colorado landlords as being "sad"—that is, we presume, heavy to a melancholy degree—he is very outspoken, and he is wonderfully disgusted with what he considers the "vulgar and snobbish" habit prevailing between Illinois and California of calling every little collection of houses a "city;" but on almost all topics of which he treats he is enthusiastically commendatory. The scenery, the soil, the air, the mineral wealth, the glorious prospects of these Rocky Mountain territories delight him. As vision after vision of beauty unfolds itself to the eye of the traveller, he pays them compliments which the pleased frontiersmen will, no doubt, accept as eagerly as an ordinary Congressman the editorial article which likens him to a patriot of Plutarch's or the mother of the Gracchi. Naturally, they will rejoice on being told that Lawrence and the country about it reminded Mr. Taylor of a picture from Europe; that another part of Kansas recalled to his memory the valleys of Epernay; that Pike's Peak seemed to him to resemble that of the Jungfrau; that, save the hills of Palestine in May, he had seen nothing to equal the immense prairie gardens of natural bloom; that the average height of the Rocky Mountains exceeds the height of the Alps; that the fresh, delicious air of the Plains rivals the breeze of the Sahara itself; that in Colorado there are ledges resembling the Apennines of the Old World; that the best hotels of New York are no better than the Pacific Hotel in Denver City; that ladies accustomed to the air and scenery and society of that town return to Denver with joy after an absence in the East; that, finally, the wonders of Colorado have never yet been half explored, and the mineral riches of that territory and its neighbors are beyond computation; that the western portions of Iowa and Missouri and the States of Nebraska and Kansas constitute the largest unbroken tract of splendid farming land in the world, and that Colorado is so rapidly increasing in population, and shows herself so well able to support population as fast as it comes, that neither the veto power, nor any other power, will long be able to keep her out of the Union.

All this is encouraging, and, judging by the glimpses Mr. Taylor gives us, we are disposed to agree with him in holding a very high opinion of the future of these regions as parts of the Republic, and of their present excellence in point of natural wealth and beauty. The volume is composed of letters written for the New York *Tribune* by Mr. Taylor during a summer's trip, and is now republished, he informs us, chiefly for the use of Colorado readers. For them it will have an interest by reason of its many local details which for us here it does not possess. There are some facts in it not known before, and, as such, worth knowing. But the fact is that any book which shall be written now about Colorado, in order to be of any great or permanent value, must be written in a way the reverse of desultory and hasty. It would be possible to prepare now a valuable, probably a pretty nearly exhaustive, report on the fauna and flora of Colorado, its mineral resources, its climate, its soil and productions, the advantages it offers to immigrants, and so forth; but such a report would have to be prepared by accomplished and laborious scientific explorers and observers. Any description of the present state of society there a very few years, we may almost say a very few months, would render obsolete. The remaining thing possible to be done now is to give a vivid description of the existing civilization and a very general account of the region, its scenery, soil, and the rest. This well done would be entertaining, if not particularly useful, reading. Two months' travel, however, would hardly fit a man for doing it, and the book before us seems to us not a great success in that direction. We do not regard the failure as a thing much to be regretted; Colorado can wait.

In conclusion, we may add that Mr. Taylor's known abilities in the way of description, often before exercised on subjects we dare say more to his taste, have not failed him. It is true at any rate that in this case they seem to have been employed more sparingly than would have been agreeable, somewhat too infrequently to relieve the rather tiresome journal of travel. We append a graphic description of a sudden storm on the Plains:

"The green of the Plains here began to be varied with belts of dark purple, which we found to be what is called 'bunch grass,' a very fine and wiry growth, but said to be excellent forage. At a distance it resembled the heather bloom on the English moors. Over these brilliant green and purple tints the snowy fortresses of chalk started up with a dazzling effect. There is not the least approach to monotony in the scenery of the Plains; but continual, inspiring change.

"We were to have another new experience that day. Our route, for some distance, lay over an elevated plateau, around which, for an hour or two, dark thunder-clouds collected. Out of one of these dropped a curtain of rain, grey in the centre, but of an intense indigo hue at the edges. It slowly passed us on the north, split, from one minute to another, by streaks of vivid rose-colored lightning, followed by deafening detonating peals; when, just as we seemed to have escaped, it suddenly wheeled and burst upon us.

"It was like a white squall on a tropic sea. We had not lowered the canvas curtains of the coach before a dam gave way over our heads, and a

torrent of mingled wind, rain, hail, and thunder overwhelmed us. The driver turned his mules as far as possible away from the wind, and stopped; the coach rocked and reeled as if about to overturn; the hail smote like volleys of musketry, and in less than fifteen minutes the whole plain lay four inches under water. I have never witnessed anything even approaching the violence of this storm; it was a marvel that the mules escaped with their lives. The bullets of hail were nearly as large as pigeons' eggs, and the lightning played around us like a succession of Bengal fires. We laid the rifles in the bottom of the coach, and for half an hour sat in silence, holding down the curtain, and expecting every moment to be overturned. Then the tornado suddenly took breath, commenced again twice or thrice, and ceased as unexpectedly as it came."

### DRAWING-BOOKS FOR SCHOOLS.\*

THE two books whose titles are given below belong to a class which seems to have nearly superseded the "drawing books" of our childhood, with their gates and churns and cottages in coarse outline, followed by the same things "shaded." There are, fortunately, but few teachers of drawing now who still teach "drawing from the flat," as the euphemistic expression is for making bad copies of worthless lithographs. Not that there is actually no sale for drawing cards and the like; they still go off rapidly enough, and there still are schools where such things are used, but it is almost confessedly as a means of using up unoccupied time. Children who have six hours to stay in school, but whose lesson-getting capacity is gauged by four hours' recitation, may as well play with lead-pencils and paper as with anything else for the rest of the time.

The "object-lessons" of these and similar books are open to the suspicion of being used very often in the same way. The young children for whom such lessons are intended are sent to school rather to be kept out of mischief than to be taught; and the earlier lessons of both these books seem meant for innocent pastime rather than instruction. There is always a certain nonsensical look about these great machines for producing small results. We dimly remember that in one of the "Rolio Books," Mrs. Holiday teaches little Thanny to "take notice" by exhibiting oranges and the like. But the necessity of such a system is hardly obvious, because, whether "to read and write comes by nature" or not, the faculty of observing certainly does, and that betimes. It undoubtedly needs culture; and learning to draw is undoubtedly the one specific for cultivating it aright. But then it must be learning to draw in earnest, by trying to represent things which exist, as they exist. Now, let us look at Mr. Goodison's book. The first lesson will pass; it is a good first lesson and rightly put, the dialogue between teacher and pupils intelligently contrived to attract the pupils' attention. A slate is to be abstractly rendered by two parallel lines for top piece of frame, two at right angles with these for the left-hand side, and so on; and the space within the supposed frame is to be shaded a little to suggest the dark slate itself. This is good. The children are taken right "to nature," so to speak. A well-defined solid object is offered them, and they are shown how to seize some vital points of it, straightness of sides, rightness of angles, and even something of what a painter would call its "local color." Then, for fifteen lessons we find alternately such object-lessons as the fires, school-room doors, and windows to be represented, and, alternately with these, exercises of parallel lines, etc.; passable practice. In Lesson XVI. we are told to draw a room end, which is described. In Lesson XVIII., a building, also from description. And then follow similar lessons, in which things are to be drawn from memory, from rules given, and even from pasteboard models. The teacher is instructed to make models in pasteboard or shingle of a board fence, picket fence, a ladder, a pair of shears, a clock, one side of a wagon. Now the difficulty with this sort of work is that the pupils are directly led away from nature and facts. The good start given by the first few lessons will be soon lost to the class who go on with such trifling as this. To make the children put down lines from your vague description or vaguer pasteboard model of a somewhat complicated object is not drawing at all; it is not even object-lesson teaching. And, just as the first lesson led children to observe the essential facts about a slate, so these lessons will teach them to ignore the essential facts about an ox-yoke or a bucksaw, which are represented to them as flat silhouettes (for so we understand the idea of pasteboard models) and not as solid bodies. The tendency is always farther and farther away from the nature of things and from the appearance of things—which are the two lessons to be learned from practice in drawing—and nearer and nearer to the system of drawing

\* "Drawing from Objects. A Manual for the Teachers and Pupils of the Common Schools. By Professor John Goodison." New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1866.

"Principles of Linear and Perspective Drawing for the Training of the Eye and Hand. Adapted for the use of Public and Private Schools. By William B. Towle." New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1866.



which the author truly says in his preface is vicious, copying representations and descriptions of things instead of things themselves.

In the second part the bad tendencies of the first part are carried farther, although, still like the first part, it begins well. The pupils are shown how to prepare geometrical solids for themselves. But the next step is not going to work to draw them carefully, but learning a long lesson on the first principles of perspective. And these principles are not clearly stated. Insufficient and trivial as they are in themselves—the principles of a pseudo-science, useful to know a little of, but a terribly dangerous staff to trust to, used by workmen like a pocket-knife, which will do a few things that no other tool will do so handily, but very limited in its uses—slight as these rules are, they are mixed up with a number of arbitrary directions not needed in this place, and these pages of the second course are little more than a burden upon the memory. The best perspective, as we have said, is a very ignoble thing—art, or science, or whatever it is—but the book before us gives to its students page after page of a false kind of perspective, a sham perspective, which is of no use whatever. No method of mathematical perspective drawing which is in common use gives actually true results in all cases; but this is a process which cannot by any possibility ever give a true result. Every student of drawing will understand what this is when we say that it consists of drawing in elevation one face of the object under treatment, and showing other faces as bounded by vanishing lines. One diagram showing this plan may be useful in a treatise on perspective. And once, in the course of a tolerably long familiarity with all the tricks and changes of mechanical drawing, we found this way of drawing a machine, though wholly false, yet handy. But it has no business whatever in this book. It is doubtful if any word about perspective has, though without it the book would be of noticeably smaller size. Three-quarters of it are devoted to rules and problems of perspective. And in all this we have found only two or three hints at that real perspective which has the value of producing approximately truthful results.

We need hardly say that the author's praise of perspective drawing in the beginning of the Third Course (p. 38) seems to us wholly misapplied and wrong. In learning "drawing from objects," the laws of perspective are about as useful as the laws of optics—that is, very seldom of any use at all.

Mr. Towle's book is almost entirely a treatise on popular applications of geometry. The first "class" has to do with squares, triangles, rhombs, etc., not as things to work out theorems with, but as things to draw on the blackboard from description. The second class is devoted to prisms, pyramids, and the like; the third class, to circles and their tangents and divisions; the fourth class, to solids of circular section. All this is well; it can be rapidly gone through—and much time ought not to be spent upon it—but it is a very good way to teach children a little about geometry while they also use pencil and ruler with increasing dexterity. With the fifth class we begin to find trouble. A number of profiles of architectural mouldings are given, and, although we do not accept the author's nomenclature, that is of small importance. But there follows these a "pedestal," then a vase, an ewer and basin, a bowl, etc., which figures are all in outline and shown as flat, though carefully described as round, and whose outlines are reduced, as far as possible, to circles, ellipses, and straight lines. The drawings are wretched, and cannot be used as models to copy from, but it does not seem meant that they should be. "The body is formed of a half ellipse, surmounted by a fancy curve," is said of a soup tureen (here called a Turenne, as if named after the Maréchal, "a highly merited compliment," as Holmes would say); it appears that something is to be made to suit the pupil, or perhaps the teacher, which must, however, be semi-elliptical below and "fanciful" above. These words, *fancy* and *fanciful*, are favorite words with the author, and describe every form not to be mathematically classified.

The sixth class introduces four of the dear old five orders, which are named, and then briefly described in words of which the ignorant brevity is delicious. And we are told that these orders of architecture are "modes of arranging the parts of a building," that "each has three principal parts," of which "the pedestal is often omitted and its place supplied by a plinth only;" that in this latter case "the order is reduced to two parts only," and so on for two pages. There is an essay on modules, and some extraordinary statements therein contained, as, for instance, that in the Ionic order "the intercolumniation, or space between the bases of two columns, is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  modules!" That is excellent, and there are a number of such funny things throughout this brief treatise on classical architecture. It ends with a plate of the four favored orders, from which, like Macbeth's face, men may read strange matters and get strange ideas of Mr. Towle's architectural authorities.

Those who remember that famous Western high road which tapered off to a by-road, a cart-track, a horse-trail, a footpath, and finally ended in a

squirrel track and ran up a tree, will be able to form an idea of the way in which this book descends from its architectural flights to various empirical maxims for the drawing of ellipses and sham ellipses made up of areas of circles; then to perspective, for a dozen pages, with no more than usual success, that is, no success at all; and ends in very simple problems in arithmetic applied to geometrical forms. But the squirrel track is the best worth following, for it is well to learn how to find the area of a square or the solid contents of a cube, and these final pages are a sort of appendix to the school arithmetic books, some of which works have nothing of the kind. The author's inaccurate way of using words and treating his subject follows him even here, as when he calls a cube a "solid square," as when (p. 81) he leaves his pupils to extract the square root as they can or if they can, not even hinting that it is sometimes harder to do than in the case he gives (25), and as when this astonishing problem is stated—to find the circumference of a circle when lengthened out into a right line!

It is a crying evil that such worthless school-books as these should find publishers, and in the regular way of trade should be advertised and puffed until they are adopted in schools, and begin to confuse and distract the minds of all the good scholars. The idle ones take care of themselves, and at twenty are healthier than the good ones, and have not lost much by giving such books as these the go-by.

### THE MAGNOLIA.\*

THIS is not the *magnolia grandiflora*; Wordsworth's towering

"magnolia spread  
High as a cloud, high overhead."

It is rather, as the device proclaims which adorns the cover of the volume, the beautiful sweet-bay, as we have heard them call it in the Carolinas, which hides itself in remote spots and fills with delicious breath the places where it blooms half concealed. The book is a collection of some twenty or thirty poems by Dr. Thomas W. Parsons, whose true rank among American poets is far higher than his recognition as a poet is widespread.

But his merits are not such as have ever commanded popularity; indeed, they are not of the highest order, although it is true that some of them are of the rarest order. The essential poetical quality, imagination, which has been defined as having a two-fold operation, that of giving feelings, thoughts, and sentiments embodiment in sublime and beautiful poems, and on the other hand that of clothing the material universe with spiritual meanings which the soul furnishes—this highest power he possesses, but he does not possess it in full measure. And perhaps, too, he feels in himself that lack which, in his latest poem, one printed in the last number of "The Galaxy," he seems to attribute to another, when he says:

"And something rough and resolute and sour  
Must with the sweetness of the soul combine,  
For, although gentleness be part of power,  
'Tis only strength makes gentleness divine."

There is nothing in his verse that positively indicates this weakness unless we assign that character to some mild little jests that may be found here and there; but negative indications there are. Strength and justness of thought are not wanting, and no weak nature ever attained such precision of thought and such mastery of language; the words, nicely chosen, exactly fit. But such mastery may be reached by a nature not very strong, but which, well balanced, cultured to a high degree, marked by modesty and reserve, has learned the limitations of its strength and wisely refuses tasks beyond it. Scholarly, then, thoughtful, rich in delicate, melancholy sentiment, models, in their somewhat limited range, of the right use of English; delightfully calm, full of goodness, but without heat of passion or high flight of imagination or great force of thought, these poems please rather than stir the soul, and it is no wonder that the circle which they please is small. And it is for us, and not for the author, to be sorry that half a dozen names of poets—half a dozen of whom would not make one like him—overlay his name and keep it hid from the eyes of most. We could wish for room in which to lay before our readers some of Mr. Parson's longer poems, that, for instance, "On a Bust of Dante," to which the best judges give the highest praise, and which would deserve a place in the most critically selected treasury of American poetry. But here is a brief strain of graceful poetry, which the last line mars, that we copy from some stanzas addressed to spring lilacs:

"Thy perfume, like a flageolet  
That once by dark Bolsena's lake,  
What time the sun made golden set,  
I heard (and seem to hear it yet),  
A thousand memories doth awake  
Of busy boyhood's vanished powers;  
Of young ambition flushed with praise;

\* "The Magnolia. T. W. Parsons." Cambridge: John Wilson & Sons. New York: David G. Francis.

Of old companions, and of hours  
That had the sunshine of whole days!  
Of Italy, and Roman ways;  
Of Tuscan ladies, courteous, fair,  
And kind as beautiful—forbear,  
O Memory!—those impassioned eyes!  
Beware! for that way madness lies."

An allusion in another stanza of this poem leads us to observe that, owing to the way in which the materials for this volume were gathered, it affords not so good means of judging the poet as other volumes of his which were originally intended for the public eye. We close with the following fine poem, "Her Epitaph," finished—except that it is unliterary and marked by a most natural ease—almost as Gray himself might have finished it; in which grief is tempered and colored and made beautiful by imagination; in which resignation is so sweetly expressed that the poem ought to become a classic:

"The handful here, that once was Mary's earth,  
Held, while it breathed, so beautiful a soul  
That, when she died, all recognized her birth,  
And had their sorrow in serene control.

"Not here! not here!" to every mourner's heart  
The wintry wind seemed whispering round her bier;  
And when the tomb door opened, with a start  
We heard it echoed from within—"Not here!"

"Shouldst thou, sad pilgrim, who mayst hither pass,  
Note in these flowers a delicater hue,  
Should spring come earlier to this hallowed grass,  
Or the bee later linger on the dew,—

"Know that her spirit to her body lent  
Such sweetness, grace, as only goodness can;  
That even her dust, and this her monument,  
Have yet a spell to stay one lonely man,—

"Lonely through life, but looking for the day  
When what is mortal of himself shall sleep;  
When human passion shall have passed away,  
And Love no longer be a thing to weep."

The volume in which these pieces are bound is a beautiful one. It was prepared by friends of the poet as a gift to him, and has the thick paper, the immense margins, the careful printing (and whatever else makes books handsome), which in a volume designed to answer such an end seem entirely fit. As may be supposed, but very few copies are on sale—some at Little & Brown's, in Boston, some at the store of Mr. Francis, in Broadway.

## NOTES ON THE NEW EDITION OF WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY.

### NUMBER XI.—STATISTICS OF THE VOCABULARY.

In entering upon this fruitful subject, I think it right to repeat the declaration, that I do not seek for errors or omissions, but point out only such mistakes and defects as accident has brought under my notice. At the same time, in order to count and classify the words composing the vocabulary, a somewhat careful examination of the word-list must be made, and in this process imperfections which have not yet betrayed themselves to me will doubtless be detected. All such will be noted in the order in which I fall upon them, without attempt at any more systematic arrangement.

Some of the difficulties in the way of making an actual enumeration of the words in any given dictionary have already been mentioned. It is probable that others will arise as I proceed in my task, and as I must go quite through the letter A before giving results, it seems to me that I shall make myself best understood by discussing questions as they come up in the course of the enumeration, and thus illustrating the principles and rules I follow by showing the application of them in actual practice.

The problem proposed is to determine the number of words rightfully introduced into this vocabulary as English, to point out the proximate etymological sources from which they have been taken, and to distribute them into grammatical classes. For a complete census of the vocabulary many other points ought to be considered; but we must stop somewhere, and there is room for the fear that what I have already proposed will overtask the patience of the reader.

To begin, then, with the first page of the dictionary. The separate titles or articles are as follows: A, Aam, Aard-vark, Aaronic and Aaronical; Aaron's-rod; Ab, Latin prefix; Ab, noun; Abaca, Abaciscus, Abacist; Aback, adverb; Aback, noun; Abacot, Abactor, Abaculus, Abacus, Abaddon; Abaft, preposition; Abaft, adverb; Abaisance, Abaiser, Abalienate, Abalienation, Aband—twenty-four in all; for the editors rightly treat the two forms, *Aaronic* and *Aaronical*, as a single word, and group them under a common definition. Now, how many words entitled, as English words, to a place in an English dictionary are contained in this list? First, is the letter A a word at all? It is the name of an alphabetic character and may be used as a nominative case, thus: "A is the first letter of all the European alphabets;" or as an objective, thus: "The box was marked with an A." Hence, though in certain cases the letter A is a mere element of words, in others it is a

part of speech, and therefore a word. Again, A is used as an indefinite article. In this sense it was originally the Anglo-Saxon numeral adjective *an*, one, and has been contracted to a single vowel for euphonic reasons. The article is a part of speech, a word. Further; to their definition of A as the indefinite article, the editors add: "In such expressions as 'twenty leagues a day,' 'a hundred pounds a year,' 'a dollar a yard,' etc., it denotes each, every." It is true that in these and other like expressions the particle A may be said in a loose way to "denote," or rather to imply, "each, every." But the editors evidently consider A in these cases as identical with the indefinite article, and the passage I have just quoted is intended to illustrate one of the uses and meanings of the article. This is an error. In this use A is a preposition, and the observation of the editors belongs, if anywhere, to their fifth specification, in which they trace what they call the prefix *in* *af*oot to a prepositional origin. That in the examples before us, A is not an article, but a preposition, might be inferred, analogically, from the usage of the cognate languages. Thus, in *Mæso-Gothic*, Luke's Gospel, xvii. 4, we read: "Jah jabai sibun sintham *ana dag* fravaurkjai." The *Mæso-Gothic ana* corresponds in meaning, as well as in form, nearly to the Greek *ἀνά*, as also to the German *an*, and the Anglo-Saxon *on*, and is, in the phrase just quoted, certainly a preposition. So in Danish: "Tlan faer ti Daler *om* Dagen, *om* Maaneden, *om* Aaret;" he receives ten dollars a day, a month, a year. "Han kommer kun eengang *om* Aaret;" he comes only once a year. *Om* is unquestionably a preposition. The French also has the same construction: "Il gagne six francs *par* jour." "Il ne mange que deux fois *par* jour." He earns six francs a day; he eats only twice a day. But we have better evidence still. The Anglo-Saxon Gospel of Luke xvii. 4 has: "And gif he *on* dag seofen sithum syngath." If he transgress seven times a day. So in Aelfric's Colloquies: "And melce hig tweowa *on* dag;" and milk them twice a day. Nobody will dispute that in these cases *on* is a preposition, and every Anglo-Saxon scholar knows that in the phrases *a-foot*, *a-sleep*, *a-hunting*, and the like, the *a* is simply the Anglicized modern form of the A.-S. preposition *on*. *A* *dæi* occurs in "Layamon," Vol. II., pp. 224, 401, and *a dai* in the "Owl and Nightingale," v. 89, in the sense of *by day*, where, of course, it can only be from A.-S. *on*; and in Chaucer's "Court of Love," stanza 50, we have "twenty sithe *aday*." Upon the whole, there is no doubt whatever that in the modern *a-day*, *now-a-days*, *a-year*, etc., the *a* is the A.-S. preposition *on*; and thus we have the first word in our list, A, in a third meaning and third grammatical category. Under the third specification, the editors notice the use of *a* for *I*, *he*, and even *have*, as a barbarous corruption. Examples of this last vulgarism occur in Lord Berners' *Froisart*, and even in Sir Thomas More; but they are probably to be ascribed to the ignorance of the printer rather than of the authors, and as, in those uses, it is a mere corruption, it should not be treated as really a word in our enumeration. A is also the name of a tone in music; it is the first of the seven dominical letters in the Julian calendar, and it is often used as a numeral instead of one. In these three, and in other analogous cases, it is merely the *first* letter of the Roman alphabet employed to indicate the *first* place in other series. The meaning is substantially the same in all of them, and there seems to be no good reason for making A, in any of these last uses, a distinct word from the alphabetic A.

To sum up: We have A as the name of a letter, a noun; as an indefinite article; as a preposition; and again as a noun indicating priority of position. Counting the first and fourth meanings as properly but different applications of the same vocable, we find in A three words distinct in meaning, distinct in grammatical class, distinct in origin. It is plain, therefore, that A must be treated not as no word at all, or even as only one word, but as three; and from our examination of the title A we appear to be safe in laying down these rules:

*First.* Words identical in form, etymology, and grammatical class, though more or less differenced in meaning, are to be counted but once. This rule is exemplified in A, the name of the *first* letter of the alphabet, of the *first* tone of a musical scale, of the *first* dominical letter in the Julian calendar, and of the *first* in any series—all identical in form, all one letter in the Latin alphabet, and all nouns.

*Second.* Words identical in form, but different in etymology, should be counted separately; exemplified in A, the name of a letter, from the Latin A; A, the indefinite article, from the A.-S. numeral adjective *an*, one; A, a preposition, from the A.-S. preposition *on*.

The next word in the list which raises any question of principle in regard to enumeration is *Aaronic*, *Aaronical*. First: Do these two forms constitute two words, or are they too nearly identical to be fairly distinguishable? They do not appear to be discriminated at all in actual use, and it is probably a mere point for the ear, not for the intellect, to determine whether, in a given case, the one shall be employed rather than the other. Both are



adjectives; both are derived from the proper name *Aaron*. They are, therefore, the same in grammatical class, the same in etymology, and they are nearly identical in form. This case suggests rule

*Third.* Words identical in grammatical class, in etymology, and in meaning, but varying in termination according to the euphonic taste of the person employing them, are to be counted but once.

This rule, it must be admitted, is wanting in precision; but at the moment I cannot substitute a better. Perhaps some improvement in the formulation of it will suggest itself as we proceed.

But behind the question we have just considered lies a more radical one still. Are *Aaronic* and *Aaronical* justly entitled to a place at all as English words in our vocabulary? This is a difficult point, and I am by no means clear as to the proper answer; but, as at present advised, I incline to reject them as, though English grammatical forms, not truly English common words. They still retain the quality of the proper name, and in their use they are limited to things belonging personally to, or derived from, *Aaron*. They have not become generic epithets, like *Ciceronian*, for instance, which, in such phrases as "he spoke with *Ciceronian* eloquence," means merely that the orator's discourse was distinguished by eloquence, amplitude, and logic, not that it was fashioned strictly after the model of *Cicero's* Orations or in accordance with the rules laid down in *Cicero's* rhetorical treatises. The objection to the introduction of such words is that their number is infinite; and if we are to admit *Aaronic* we cannot exclude *Byronic*, *Napoleonic*—for both of which there is abundant authority—and so on *ad libitum*. Provisory, therefore, I adopt rule

*Fourth.* Words formed from proper names, and still limited to express something directly connected with the person from whose name they are taken, and therefore not become common or generic, are not to be counted.

The next word on the first page, *Aaron's-rod*, does not come within this exclusion, both because the proper name is only employed in composition with an English radical, and because the word is generic in its use, and is from a fancied vague resemblance to the wonder-working rod of Aaron, applied to a form of architectural decoration not otherwise related to the object from which it takes its name. While on this subject we may as well dispose of the whole question relating to proper names and derivatives from them. No one would contend that if the editors of Webster had chosen to copy Lippincott's gazetteer into their dictionary, the names of places thus introduced ought to be counted as constituents of the English vocabulary, and it is evident that geographical proper names have no better claim than personal names. The same principle applies also to derivatives from both. Ethnological, geographical, and personal appellatives *as such* have no right to claim a place in any word-books but geographical and biographical dictionaries. Words of this class may, however, be entitled to admission by acquiring a signification distinct from their geographical or personal meaning. Thus *Asiatic* is used not merely as a designation of things properly belonging to the continent of *Asia*, but, generically, of analogous things, and it has accordingly become a common epithet. If one were to say of a rich American democrat that he entertained his friends with *Asiatic* luxury and regal splendor, nobody would understand that bird's-nests, shark's fins, and trepang were served up to them, or that he received them sitting upon a golden throne. In such cases the epithet is simply an intensive or term of comparison, its etymological meaning is lost altogether, and hence the rule just stated has no more application to them than a similar principle would have, in a German dictionary, to the word *Kaiser*, emperor, which notoriously comes from the Latin proper name *Cæsar*. G. P. M.

*Harvard Memorial Biographies.* (Cambridge: Sever & Francis. 2 vols. 8vo. 1866. E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.)—Possibly these lives, edited by classmate, relative, or bosom friend, may resemble somewhat those which commonly get upon tombstones. When one addresses not a remote posterity, but the stricken survivors of the lately dead, he will hardly neglect the respectable mention, *de mortuis nil nisi bonum*. If this practice serves to confound the motives of common actions, and suppresses the inspiring contrast between a worthless beginning and a glorious end of the human career, it has on this account a perhaps higher value as bringing into sharp relief that human sympathy which, on every grand occasion, demonstrates the essential unity of the race. But though professedly memorial, and therefore consolatory rather than critical or didactic, these biographies are remarkable for candor and truthfulness. They are even characterized by moderateness of statement and a tacit agreement to say little beyond the narrative, which tells so much. Where they are autobiographical—and they are largely so—some history of events but more revelation of character is obtained. And we are let in very close to the secret thoughts of the deceased. It is encouraging to turn from what seems a barren, even if diminishing, strife of sects, and a seeming decadence of the church, to the intimate connection here shown between the new birth into religion and the patriotic sacrifice on the field of battle. The old bloods, too, reappear—Mayflower, Roger Williams, Huguenot, F. F. V., laughing to scorn the ethnological pretensions of "chivalry." The native young men of wealth, the finest edu-

cation, the highest social position in the North, challenge the slanderers of the Old World who taunted America with winning victories as she built railroads—with the hired muscles of the immigrant, the scum and spawn and riff-raff of Europe. Here and there—too sparsely for the whole truth, so we apprehend—a betrothed bride, a young wife, a posthumous child, is mentioned or suggested. But nothing could be said here of those other Harvard men who fought beside the fallen, offering themselves as nobly to the same fate, or who met death obscurely from disease contracted in the service, or in opening to the freedmen a new life and a new light. Nor could they hope to be remembered in such company who, through pitiful misfortune, it is true, perished miserably upon the other side.

It is an injustice to the public, who cannot allow these lives to be appropriated by any single institution, as well as to the great body of the alumni of all our colleges—Harvard not excepted—that only a small edition of these two elegant volumes was printed, and is already, if not exhausted, much enhanced in price. We learn from one to whose patient devotion this collection owes a large part of its worth, that an effort will probably be made to issue a popular edition, even at the expense and pains of resetting. We sincerely hope the effort will succeed. The publishers may gain equal credit by a less sumptuous outlay.

*Poems Grave and Gay.* George Arnold. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1867.)—This is a book of poor verse preceded by a poorer preface. That is, both are weak; but the preface-writer seems to be further from manly strength of any sort than the poet. This latter was a man who died at the not very youthful age of thirty-one, and whose favorite authors then were Balzac and Byron, as his friend tells us, and he tells it as if it were an interesting fact in the history of this individual young man, and seems unaware that it is a fact in the natural history of the genus to which the young man belonged—a genus of which, on the whole, considering how much we have heard already, and how little it is worth hearing about, the less we hear the better. The friend goes on to show more of the quality of his wisdom by printing in a book poems of this sort, which their writer (to do him justice—to partly save him from his friends) never himself collected from the newspapers for which he wrote them:

"IN THE ALCOVE.

"Round and round the waltzers twirled;  
Through the hall the music rang—  
Viol's hum and cymbal's clang—  
Is not this a pleasant world?"

"But Lady Clare passed by me,  
And her lip was curved with scorn;  
I sat me down in an alcove,  
And wished I never was born.

"Up and down the glittering room  
Went each dame and cavalier,  
In the triple atmosphere  
Of light, and music, and perfume.

"But Lady Clare walked by me,  
And tossed her delicate head;  
So there I sat in the alcove,  
Wishing that I were dead."

Other "pot-boilers" of a comic kind, parodies of poems by Tennyson, Bryant, Hood, and many more, it is possible to read, and even, to a certain extent, praise. At all events, the crackling of thorns under a pot is a pleasanter sound than the plaints and heart-throbs of a certain sort of people. As a specimen of his mirth, the specimen most favorable to him that we can find, we copy a stanza which parodies Bryant's fine poem, "The Planting of the Apple-Tree." "The Drinking of the Apple-Jack" Arnold calls it:

"Come, let us drink the apple-jack!  
Cut the tough lemon with the blade;  
Hot let the water then be made;  
There gently pour the liquor; there  
Sift the white sugar in with care,  
And mix them all as gingerly  
As poets mingle rhythmic feet  
To print in some æsthetic sheet:  
So mix we the apple-jack."

*Sklaverei und Emancipation der schwarzen Race in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika.* Geschichtliche Abhandlungen von C. Goedel. (Herausgegeben vom Züricher Comité zur Unterstützung der befreiten Farbigen. Zürich. 1866. Pp. 150.) *Slavery and Emancipation of the Black Race in the United States of North America.* Historical Essays by C. Goedel. (Published by the Zürich Committee for Furnishing Assistance to the Freedmen.)—The title of this pamphlet, which we have given at full length, shows the shape which Swiss sympathy in the great work of our country has taken. The sketches treat of the history of slavery in colonial times, of its growth and extension in the United States, of its results, our rebellion, of emancipation, and of the condition of the blacks before and after the war. The introduction, after acknowledging the gifts already received by the society, declares the purpose of this pamphlet to be the dissemination of the true state of the case throughout Switzerland, as being at once the best appeal to the practical Christianity of the Swiss, and the only thing which is needed to interest the people of the one republic in the welfare of the other. The author is a man of business and not of letters; but it is the acquaintance which he has formed with the American men of business, in the way of business, that has enabled him to make these enquiries, and properly to estimate their value and importance both to the United States and (indirectly) to Switzerland. Of course the sources of information and the information itself cannot be new to us, but such substantial sympathy and help must be useful and valuable. The names of the committee are given in the appendix, and among them we find clergymen, professors, merchants, and one or two local celebrities, Escher, Syz-Landia, and Hesendonck. It is to be hoped that some measures will be taken to collect and perpetuate all such evidences of the interest taken in this country by Swiss as ties between the two republics, and to extend them to other European states and cities.

*Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.*

*All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.*

### IMMEDIATE RECONSTRUCTION A DUTY.

THE absolute rejection of the Constitutional Amendment by Mr. Johnson's State legislatures takes away all excuse for the thought of sanctioning his usurpations by recognizing the validity of the governments organized by him. It is, in every point of view, as well that this has happened. The amendment, though excellent in itself, would not be a complete settlement of the issues between the North and the South; while the recognition of States organized by a bald usurpation of the Executive, no matter upon what conditions, would be a highly dangerous precedent. In offering such terms to the South, we believe that Congress obeyed the will of the people; but we are confident that the people neither expected nor desired that, if these terms were rejected, Congress should do nothing more. Yet, some influential Republicans in Congress seem to consider the amendment a finality, and to hold Congress bound to wait for the Southern whites to ratify it, even though months and years pass by.

From this view we strongly dissent. The day of grace is past. All the Southern legislatures have met, and all have deliberately rejected the terms offered to them. If these legislatures should reconsider their action, ratify the amendment, and thereupon be recognized by Congress, it may yet be questioned in the courts whether such a ratification is valid; and after such recognition the amendment would clearly have no validity if not ratified by three-fourths of *all* the States, including those newly recognized. Congress is not bound to run any such risks, nor has it a right to do so.

The main reasons for further action by Congress are, however, to be found in the obvious dangers of delay in reconstruction, and the certainty that such delay will be almost indefinitely prolonged under the present policy. On this point we have frequently expressed our entire concurrence with the most earnest advocates of the Southern cause. It is absurd to deny that the unsettled condition of the South is prejudicial to the North. With no legitimate government, and with the whole influence of the *de facto* governments tending to injustice, inequality, and insecurity, it is impossible that the South should prosper. Nor is it possible for the North to prosper as it should so long as this unsettled state of society exists in one-third of the common country, depriving it of capacity to produce or to purchase as it otherwise would. The laborers of the South have no security for their liberty or their wages. Capitalists have no security for their investments. How can they safely lend money to governments which may at any day be overthrown? How can they act under charters from such governments? We do not wonder that the Southern States have had to allow large discounts on their bonds. We only marvel that such obligations should be salable at any price. The unpleasant situation in which Northern men find themselves at the South is notorious; nor can it be improved without a thorough reorganization of the local governments. Under such circumstances, the South cannot possibly contribute to the national wealth anything like what it would if law, order, and equality of rights were firmly established.

The political precedent involved in indefinite delay is also worthy of consideration. Ten governments are in fact controlling the internal affairs of as many States; and Congress neither recognizes nor disavows them by any decisive official act. Yet if they are not legitimate, it is the clear duty of Congress to suppress them and secure to the people regular government; while if they are legitimate, it is equally the duty of Congress to admit their representatives. A prolongation of the present state of things would be an excuse to future Congresses for either weakness or usurpation, as they might feel disposed.

Even from a merely partisan view of the case, the perils of delay seem intolerable. The whole question is put at issue every alternate year. A single defeat would be irremediable; for if the Southern States are once recognized, the act can never be undone. And every year would add to the strength of the existing governments at the

South; since toleration would amount to a half recognition, and vast pecuniary interests would become involved with them. Add to these considerations the possibility that at any moment the validity of these governments, as the only ones in existence may be asserted by the Supreme Court, and the danger that delay will result in a triumph for the South does not seem small.

We therefore urge upon the present Congress the duty of immediate reconstruction. At the very least, an experiment should be made upon one or two States. Conventions should be summoned forthwith, and all the machinery of government be put in motion. We have repeatedly shown that Congress has the power to do this, and that the co-ordinate departments of the Government are bound to abide by the decision of Congress between conflicting governments. We shall not again set forth our arguments to this effect, because Congress no longer doubts its power, but only hesitates as to the expediency of exercising it.

Those conservative Republicans who oppose further action on this subject, from fear of its effect upon business, are, as it seems to us, short-sighted. It must be far better, in a mere business point of view, to bring this controversy to a head at once, than to let it drag on for years. Uncertainty is the curse of trade, which can accommodate itself to almost any settled state of affairs, but is ruined by doubts and fluctuations.

It is said by some that nothing can be done until Mr. Johnson is removed. But it is very plain that if an impeachment is to be had, an act of reconstruction, imposing simple and unmistakable duties upon the President, will either compel him to submit or furnish ground for impeachment too clear to be a matter of dispute. Thus, he may be required to issue a proclamation, or to provide for an election, or to do some other act involving a repudiation of the governments which he has set up. If he fails to comply by the day appointed, he will be so clearly guilty of a misdemeanor that no question can be raised other than one of pure law, upon which no argument need be made by the prosecution. Upon such a charge Mr. Johnson could be impeached, tried, convicted, and removed, within ten days, with the most perfect decorum, fairness, and legality, and with the general approval of the country. His trial upon an indictment such as General Butler presents would occupy six months or a year, while any attempt to supersede him meantime might precipitate us into civil war. On the other hand, if Mr. Johnson obeys the law, his defeat will be so perfect that he can no longer have any power to interpose obstacles in the way of Congressional action, he will mortally offend his present supporters (if he really has any), and must submit to carry out the whole policy of Congress.

Whether, therefore, an impeachment be desired or not, it is evident that the interests of society, both North and South, demand the early action of Congress upon reconstruction. However imperfect that action may be, it will at least establish something certain where all is now in doubt, and cannot, therefore, fail to be beneficial. But we have no fear that the measures of Congress upon this point will not be in the main judiciously framed. The principles which will govern it are well known, and are approved by the country. Now let it act, and act without delay.

### THE TURKISH QUESTION.

ONE thing, and we might almost say the only thing, which is clear in the news from the Mediterranean is that the Cretan struggle is not over, and is not likely to end without producing serious complications in European politics. Whatever amount of sympathy and encouragement the Cretans may meet with in other countries, in Greece, at least, there is a desire to help them, which neither the Turks nor foreign powers can restrain. Turkish despotism differs from all other European despotisms in reaching all classes of the community, the lower even more effectually than the upper. The Austrian or Russian despotism presses most severely on the educated or wealthy classes, but that of the Turks has the peculiarity of being felt more bitterly in the cabin than in the salon, and of exciting indescribable hatred amongst those who have little sympathy with what is called "modern liberalism" and care little about national independence in its highest sense. The Greek peasants do not detest Turkish rule because they sigh over the ancient glories of their race, or long for a freer political development, but be



cause they want to keep their wives, their children, and their scanty earnings to themselves. They hate Turks not as men hate tyrants, but as they hate wolves and tigers. Consequently neither their ignorance, nor poverty, nor want of union or organization, is likely to prevent the prolongation of the struggle, and the struggle can hardly be prolonged without bringing on the interference, either secret or overt, of the great European powers. It is from this fact, in our opinion, the Turks have most to fear. We do not anticipate any very rapid success from the efforts of the Greeks themselves.

What shape the interference will take, or who will initiate it, it is hard to say, but that it will come before very long seems every day more likely. The two powers now most opposed to the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire are, as in 1852, France and England. Each of them has the strongest interest in preventing the establishment of a first-class power in the eastern end of the Mediterranean—France because of the effect which such an event would have on her own influence in Southern Europe and Africa; and England, both for this reason and for the peril in which such a change would place her communications with India. It may, of course, be said that similar objection lay to the resuscitation of Italy, and this is true. But the moral arguments in favor of the resuscitation of Italy were too strong for any amount of political selfishness on the part of foreign powers to resist them, and they were backed up by the persistent efforts of the Italians themselves. The Ottoman rule in South-eastern Europe would long ago have shared the fate of the Austrian rule in Italy, and the Turks been forced to retire into Asia, had there been in European Turkey, as there was in Italy, a strong organized power amongst the Christian subjects, ready to take the place of the old government. As soon as there arose in Italy a disciplined, intelligent native force, which had proved its capacity on a small scale and satisfied the world that when Austria retired it could supply a national government, the maintenance of Austrian rule in the Peninsula became impossible, and the old maxims of the French and German fears of a united Italy lost all their force.

When the Greek kingdom was established it was the confident belief of its friends that it would play for the whole of Christian Turkey the part which Piedmont played for Italy; that it would prove a centre of national life, of political education, and would gradually acquire a moral weight in Europe which would compensate for its physical weakness, and thus become in the eyes of the civilized world the lawful heir and administrator of the Turkish "sick man," to use the Russian Emperor's illustration. The kingdom of Greece has not, however, answered these expectations. It has done nothing to win either the confidence or respect of the civilized world. It has displayed neither skill nor wisdom in home or in foreign affairs. Its finances and police have always been in disorder. There has never been either protection for life or property even in the immediate vicinity of the capital. The court has been a caricature, the army a mockery; and the leading politicians have displayed neither talents nor virtue, and have passed the golden years of modern Greek history in a disgraceful scramble for the spoils of office. What has been the cause of this failure—whether the smallness of the kingdom as constituted by the protecting powers, or the character of the sovereigns imposed on it, as the Greeks maintain, or the defects of the Greek character, as the French and English maintain—we do not propose to discuss at present. The fact remains that the Greek kingdom has proved a failure, and a very repulsive failure; that the great military exploits of the Greek insurrection have not been followed by the display of political virtue and capacity; and that during the last twenty years, in which Turkey has been in the throes of dissolution, the Greeks have not been able to offer to the great powers any proof that if the seat of empire on the Bosphorus were left vacant they were competent to fill it or to assume the control and direction of the other races of European Turkey. Consequently there is just as much uncertainty to-day as to what may happen after the demise of the Ottoman Empire as there was at the beginning of the century. Could modern Greece stretch out a trained and tried hand for Constantinople and for all the shores and islands which the genius of ancient Greece has glorified, there is no question that not one of the great powers would venture to dispute her title, and the "Eastern

question," coming so soon after the "Italian question," would be settled on the same great principles of justice and morality.

The failure of the Greeks to make good their claim leaves the old jealousy between the European powers as strong as ever. Russia in possession of European Turkey, and with the Greek islands within her grasp, would threaten, or appear to threaten, the liberty and independence of the civilized world, and however Prussia, in consideration of her recent and prospective acquisitions in Germany, might be induced to regard it, it is certain that neither France nor England would ever consent to it without receiving compensation in the Mediterranean on the nature and extent of which they could probably never be got to agree. The negotiations, too, would be complicated by the appearance of Italy on the scene, with even stronger claims for a share in the spoil than any of the others. But France and England are evidently losing their old pre-eminence in the European world. They have for the last two hundred years played the leading part in European politics and occupied the foremost places in war, in literature, and in the arts, but it seems now as if the sceptre were passing away from them. France has been growing rapidly in wealth of late years, and so has England; but both seem unable any longer to make the gigantic efforts required for the maintenance of their old place in the world. The population of France is stationary, and the peculiar nature of her civilization seems likely to keep it so; and England, though not falling off in numbers, seems to be afflicted with a species of social and political paralysis by which nobody is more profoundly impressed than herself, and the only remedy for which even the most hopeful of her friends acknowledge to be desperate. Austria is already a half inanimate body, hardly better off than Turkey. Prussia and Russia, on the other hand, are growing at a marvellous pace. Every year sees the forces under their banners swell by tens of thousands; every ten years, for the next century, will probably see the area of their territory enlarged. The one rules over the very centre of civilization and gathers the flower of European youth into its armies, and the other holds in reserve the untold resources of that vast Eastern region from which Europe has been already once overrun. Now, Prussia may prove indifferent to Russian movements on the Black Sea, and should the two powers come to an understanding on the Eastern question, it is hard to say who could gainsay their decision with a chance of success. France, we may be sure, would not submit quietly to the loss of the influence she has yielded in the Mediterranean for over a thousand years, and France can do great things; but the world has greatly changed since one battle gave her Berlin and one campaign gave her Moscow. England is passing through a political and social crisis which would probably forbid actual participation in Continental broils, even if the last attempt to save Turkey had not struck so serious a blow at English prestige, and if the policy of non-interference had not since then been deliberately adopted. As long as England holds Malta and Gibraltar, her footing in the Mediterranean is not likely to be endangered by anything which does not actually diminish her fighting power, and she will probably, when the worst comes to the worst, leave Turkey to its fate. It is clear that, however the present trouble may end, the regions bordering on the Mediterranean are on the eve of great changes, and what with political transformations and the influence of the telegraph and railroad and the Suez Canal in bringing back commerce to its old channels, we shall probably witness, even in our time, the gradual restoration of the historic sea to the place of pre-eminence, both political and commercial, which it held in the ancient and mediæval world.

#### PAYMENT FOR PROFESSIONAL SERVICES.

WITHIN the last six months two attempts have ostensibly been made to get the architects of the country to send in drawings for very important public buildings—one the State Capitol at Albany, and the other the new buildings of the War Department in Washington—for a small fixed sum and without any assurance that the successful competitor would afterwards be employed to superintend the work. In both cases the leading architects have united in a refusal, in which they say that they will not make competitive designs for any work unless they are assured beforehand that the author of the accepted plan shall superintend its execution and receive compensation for his services in the customary way. The architect's commission in the

case of the Albany Capitol would amount, at the usual rate for private work, to about \$30,000; the "Empire State" offers, through its agents, \$2,500 for the service. The compensation of the architect in the case of a building erected for commercial purposes of the character of the proposed War Office would amount to about \$25,000; the United States, through a board of officers charged with the duty, offer from \$1,000 to \$3,000 as premiums for the best three plans, but nothing more.

The architects say, with great justice, that both these buildings ought to be not simply great piles of masonry, with a certain amount of office accommodation inside, but real works of art; not only the embodiment of the highest taste and cultivation of the country, but good enough to exercise a powerful influence hereafter upon the æsthetic education of the people. To conceive and put on paper a structure which would meet these requirements needs, in the first place, if not genius, the highest order of talent and imaginative power, either highly trained by study, reflection, and observation, or by years of practical experience, or by both. In short, in the mystery of arts, there is no higher grade than that of a first-rate architect, and nobody but a first-rate architect is capable of either conceiving or executing public buildings which will be worthy of the country and of the age. To offer to such a man, for such work, the sum of \$2,500 or \$3,000, displays deplorable ignorance on the part of the Capitol Commission and the War Office Board of the two things which it most concerns them to know—the kind of buildings they want and the kind of men competent to execute them; and behind this ignorance there is, of course, another defect, which is not peculiar to these two bodies of gentlemen, but pervades in a greater or less degree the whole community—ignorance of the real value of professional labor, or, to put it in another and perhaps less offensive shape, a tendency to under-estimate all services which do not result, or are not likely to result, in direct pecuniary profit to the employer.

Nevertheless, in the case of architects we confess there is something to be said in the way of apology, if not of defence, for the undeniable unwillingness of the public to pay them what they ask in the way in which they ask it—that is, by a percentage on the money spent. We grant without hesitation that \$25,000 is not a cent too much to pay for a worthy expression of the idea which the people of a great State ought to have of the kind of building in which their legislature ought to meet. Hardly any sum would be too great to pay to a man who could perfectly express such an idea. Those who ask an architect to design a capitol for \$2,500 do not think of anything more than providing what may be called a costly *shelter*, and of this any builder or carpenter is of course capable.

But there is, nevertheless, to most men something on the face of it a little preposterous in paying an artist, *qua* artist, according to the sum it costs to put his idea into execution. The value of his work lies in the conception, and of the value of this an estimate may be formed the minute he puts it on paper. He does so estimate it himself. He says: I will design you a building of such and such a character, containing such and such accommodation, and to cost \$50,000. I will superintend its execution, and pledge you my professional honor that the mechanics' work shall be suitably done, for \$5,000. You agree without hesitation to pay him this sum; but while the work is in progress, lumber rises or laborers strike, and the result is that the building costs \$75,000 instead of \$50,000; the architect's trouble and responsibility remain the same, but he receives \$7,500. It may of course be said, and is said, in reply, that inasmuch as a rise in building materials or in labor usually indicates or accompanies a rise in the cost of living, it is only by making his professional charges rise with them that the architect can secure himself a fair share in the general advance of prices. It is also said, and with equal justice, that the difference between what most buildings cost and what it is calculated at the outset that they will cost, is due to a change of mind on the part of the owners, the introduction of new features at their request into the plans, and that the architect must protect himself against people's fickleness or caprice or inability to state clearly their own wants by making his compensation depend on cost. Although an artist in the highest sense of the word, he is not simply an artist. He is also a manager, and of course his trouble is increased in more than one way if modifications are made by others in his plans. Moreover, buildings are not simply works of art; they are in a very large number of cases commercial enterprises. The value of a bank or store or insurance office, for instance, depends largely on the amount of accommodation it affords, and on the number of well-lighted and convenient offices which it supplies for rent. If an architect's skill or ingenuity in arrangement, therefore, has added largely to the commercial value of the building, it is fair enough that he should share in the profit in the commercial way by charging commission. Moreover, they say the plan of charging by commission is not of their devising; that it prevails in

almost every branch of business. Brokers and agents of all kinds are paid for their services not by a round sum, but by a percentage on the amount of money which passes through their hands.

All this is true, but it is not the whole of the truth. In employing a broker we fix to a dollar the amount of money he shall spend, and consequently the amount we shall pay him for his services, by fixing the minimum for which he shall sell, or the maximum for which he shall buy. The architect's compensation, as long as he is paid by commission, we cannot fix, let estimates be ever so carefully made. In the first place, no architect can possibly, by any amount of care, include everything in his estimates. In a large building hundreds of items are sure to be overlooked, each one, perhaps, of small importance in itself, but in the aggregate causing a formidable addition to the cost. For this reason neither contracts nor estimates ever give more than an approximation to cost, and yet it is the client and not the architect who suffers from these oversights—the latter actually profiting by them. In the next place, no client ever knows, or except in very few cases can know, what he wants, and can tell whether any plan submitted to him will really meet his wants, supposing he does know them. It is only to the professional eye, the trained professional imagination, that a drawing conveys a clear and distinct idea of what the building will be. To most men, the statement that a room will be so many feet in length and breadth, and so many feet in height, supplies little notion of what the reality will look like; and of the general effect in brick or stone even of "an elevation," seen only on paper, not one man in a thousand can form any adequate conception. Consequently the clients of an architect, when they put themselves in his hands, put themselves in his power to a degree unknown in any similar relation, and they are generally painfully conscious of their own ignorance. The people who think they know all about building do not employ architects. Therefore, under these circumstances—the ignorance, inevitable ignorance, of the client, and the difficulty of making exact previous calculations of the cost, combined with the direct interest which the architect has in having the work cost as much as possible—the whole profession, under the commission system, is exposed to the suspicion, as we believe the very unjust but not unnatural suspicion, if not of increasing cost, of taking no pains to prevent its increasing.

Although, as we have said, the architect is not simply an artist, but also a manager of work, he is, nevertheless, still more of an artist, and must be more of an artist than of anything else. Not only, therefore, is it for his pecuniary interest, under the present system of remuneration, that a building shall cost as much as possible, but his feelings as an artist lead him inevitably to treat cost as but a secondary consideration—perfection, finish, and beauty as the main one. That architects honestly endeavor not to be influenced by this consideration we have no doubt; but to assert that none of them are influenced by it, is to say either that they are more than human or not animated by true professional ambition. To put them on a right footing with the public, however, their compensation ought to be in no way affected by the amount of the builder's bills after the plans had once been made; because, in the first place, a building is hardly ever undertaken, in this country at least, the expense of which is of little or no consequence. As a general rule, the problem for the solution of which an architect's assistance is sought is not how to get a handsome house or store, but how to spend a certain sum to the best advantage.

In the second place, the art education of the American public, and indeed we may say of every other public, is still in too backward a state to enable them to appreciate the services of an architect at their full value. There is as yet both very little desire for beauty in architecture, and very great reluctance to pay much for professional labor of any kind. What an architect can do for a man only very few know; fewer still are willing to give for it what it is worth. When the honorable architect insists, therefore, on an arrangement which to the vulgar eye appears to give him a direct interest in leading his client into all possible expense, the mass of men are driven either to betake themselves to a thrifty quack, who, while making but low charges as an architect, is acquiring a fortune by connivance with knavish contractors, or to employ a builder who, with no suitable talent, education, or training, professes to be also an architect, and the popular indifference to architectural beauty is thus confirmed and perpetuated. The great majority of builders of houses in this country, whether individuals or corporations, are now, and will always be, limited in their means, forced before they begin to build to count the cost closely, and it may be questioned whether anything would be more likely to promote amongst them the employment of the highest architectural talent than the certainty that the architect has no interest in their overrunning their calculations. We admit that the present scale of charges is not one whit too high, and in charging a fixed sum, we think the architect should secure himself against the conse-



quences of all his client's infirmities, be they what they may. There is no profession in the country in which the rewards of labor are not miserably low, unless when, as in the case of lawyers, there is some mode of turning the result of the professional man's exertions into dollars and cents before the mind's eye. But clergymen, doctors, architects, and writers all suffer abominably from the short-sighted tradesman turn of the Anglo-Saxon mind.

# ENGLAND.

LONDON, Jan. 11, 1867.

THE newspapers are at present suffering from a dearth of news. Their columns are painfully filled with all sorts of inferior matter. Long discussions on the affairs of foreign powers, from Mexico to Montenegro, seem to be the most popular expedient. The apparently authentic news that Lord Stanley has proposed to refer the *Alabama* claims to arbitration has been one of the latest topics, and has been received with general satisfaction. Perhaps the greatest piece of luck for editors has been a sharp frost, which lasted for nearly a week. Frosts have almost gone out of fashion in London. During two previous winters we have not had a single day's skating, and on the present occasion the enjoyment of two days on the ice was quite a novel sensation. The mere record of the number of people who are half-drowned in the Serpentine would not be, of itself, very exciting; but the frost exemplified certain peculiarities of London with a good deal more force than was at all agreeable. A more dreary sight than London streets during the few days of frost would be difficult to conceive. A thick, cold fog brooded over the city. A heavy snow-fall had rendered the streets impassable. For two or three days the opposite sides of the Park were divided as if a Swiss glacier had flowed between them. Cabs could scarcely be tempted to venture on to the slippery pavements and to seek their way through the perilous fog by promise of exorbitant fares. The only population visible was that which was bent on skating or the bands of ragged laborers who parade the streets intoning the melancholy chorus, "We're all froze out, we're all froze out, we've got no work to do." I live in a somewhat remote quarter, but I do not believe that a quarter of an hour passed throughout the day without my being treated to this dismal refrain, given out in strong nasal tones with the full power of five or six vigorous pairs of lungs. Now, it was a pertinent question why, when so many men were in want of work, and when there was such a pressing need that a particular piece of work should be done, mountains of snow should be left to block up our streets and convert each house into the likeness of a besieged fortress. To which answer was made that these frozen-out gentry really prefer raising money by roaring about the streets to raising it by a little hard work, and that it was therefore difficult, in spite of appearances, to get the necessary laborers at so short notice; snow being apparently held to be an inscrutable and unimaginable occurrence about Christmas time. This, however, is merely the official apology for incapacity; the true reason is that London is under the most anomalous and intricate system of government which ever ruled over an equal aggregate of human beings. Instead of being a city, it is a collection of overgrown villages, each governed by a set of practically irresponsible vestrymen. In any matters which want a little co-operation and intelligence, they invariably collapse; and as no one knows very clearly who deserves the blame, it becomes almost impossible to administer any chastisement. We are always grumbling about our water and our gas and our pavements, but nothing comes of it; and the hardship of being hopelessly snowed up in the biggest city of the world owing to the pure incapacity of its rulers, is merely another count in a long indictment.

A change will doubtless come before long, for London is going through alterations comparable to those of Paris, and every alteration makes more evident the need of some central power. The huge inarticulate mass is in need of some kind of intelligent organization, and the first step towards erecting a kind of federal union between its discordant atoms has been taken in the formation of the Metropolitan Board of Works. That board is already doing good service in forming the Thames embankment, the main drainage, and a variety of other important improvements; it will doubtless manage to acquire other functions, in obedience to the general instinct which prompts all boards to swallow up their smaller rivals. One most important change in this direction is being now brought forward by many men of high standing, some of whom had an interview the other day with Lord Derby. The railways which are beginning to pierce the very heart of London have incidentally caused great evils. They have knocked down large numbers of houses in the most crowded parts of the town. It is calculated that within four years fifty thousand people have been turned out of their homes owing to this cause. The result has been to crowd to repletion districts which were already so crowded as to be pestilential. Respectable working-men

with their families have to herd together in one room, or even two or three families are forced each to occupy a corner. It is unnecessary to point out the moral and physical evils which are the inevitable results. One could not invent a better plan for directly manufacturing paupers and criminals by wholesale. It is now urged that railways should be compelled to provide suitable accommodation in return for that which they destroy, and further, that the Metropolitan Board of Works should have the power to condemn houses as unfit for habitation and to rebuild them on advances from the Treasury, repayment to be secured on the metropolitan rates. Lord Derby will probably have too much on his hands next session to be willing to burden himself with this additional weight. Moreover, according to that great doctrine of political economists which some persons take to be the whole of political economy, namely, that everything ought to be let alone, much may be urged against the plan. Considered as a remedy for a sudden evil, and an evil which has been produced by legislative action, it is plainly justifiable; if Parliament gives power to railways to knock down a whole town of houses, Parliament may certainly provide that such a power should be exercised so as to produce the minimum of inconvenience. But it seems rather a doubtful principle that the state should interfere to give people respectable lodgings any more than to give them a higher rate of wages. The only thing to be said is that in such cases it is sometimes wise to strike as hard as possible at a notorious evil and to leave general principles to take care of themselves. I will not, however, attempt to argue this question, merely pointing it out as one of those which will inevitably come up for solution before long. Next session has so many tasks already provided for it, that perhaps it may again be postponed; but it is certainly one of those which press most for a speedy solution.

To turn to a rather more lively topic, the approach of the session may be seen in another way. The reform agitation becomes more interesting, and the first proof of reviving interest is a new crop of libels against Mr. Bright. That generally excellent but rather heavy periodical, the "Fortnightly Review" (which, by the way, now appears only once a month), led the way with singular clumsiness. It professed to introduce a higher tone into English periodical literature by discarding anonymous writing. Its notice of public affairs, however, which of all parts of the "Review" most needed a responsible author, continued to be anonymous. In an article in the December number, Mr. Bright was quoted as having made these two statements: first, that all the land of England was in the hands of 150 owners, and all Scotland in the hands of 12; secondly, that the rich had no right to legislate exclusively for the poor, and, more than that, the poor had a right to legislate exclusively "for the rich." Now, in the first instance, Mr. Bright had said *half* England and *half* Scotland (a correspondent of the *Times* ingeniously argued that, to say that half Scotland belonged to 12 owners was the same thing as saying that the whole belonged to 24); and in the second case, the words "and more than that" are a mistake for the words "any more than." After some correspondence, the author of these statements acknowledged his name—he is a Mr. Danby Seymour, a Liberal M.P. and a friend of Mr. Bright's; he said that they did not matter much, and that, if they had been accurate, his inferences from them would have been justifiable, and a very lame apology was inserted in the "Fortnightly" for these gross and most invidious blunders. A Mr. Garth, however, a Conservative lawyer, has quite cut out Mr. Seymour. He asserted roundly that Mr. Bright was hated by his own workmen, that he had been hooted out of his own yard, that he had not subscribed for the mechanics in the cotton famine, and that, instead of subscribing, he had proposed to issue loans to the distressed, in order to keep them "as serfs at his beck and call." When asked by Mr. Bright to explain these audacious statements, he could give no authority for them whatever, except that two very extreme members of Parliament had once said something like some of them in election speeches, and that he did not know that they had been contradicted. Whereupon Mr. Bright told Mr. Garth that he was one of those persons who threw dirt recklessly, because they knew that, if necessary, they could afterwards eat it, which is about the truth. The most characteristic thing is, that a sound and rather eminent lawyer is perfectly prepared to believe any discreditable story about Mr. Bright, simply because it is discreditable, without so much as asking for evidence. Mr. Bright is, to Conservative imaginations, the incarnation of all that is diabolical, and the burden of proof is always upon him; he must establish his innocence or he will be assumed to be guilty.

These things forbode a degree of political rancor in the coming session such as we have not lately known. A rather unfortunate proposal has been made, which, if carried out, will not tend to diminish it. It has been suggested that another demonstration of working-men should be made at the opening of Parliament. As many men as possible are to go down,

each bearing his own petition for the franchise, and the Liberal members of Parliament—such as Mr. Bright, Mr. Mill, Mr. Hughes, and Professor Fawcett—are to be asked to stand at the door of the House to receive them. It is a very ill-conceived and undesirable plan, in my opinion. It would look far too much like an exhibition of physical force not to disgust the great body of moderate men, and it could hardly end in anything but the collection of a huge, disorderly crowd. There would be no room near Westminster Hall for the numbers proposed, nor for any approach to them; and it is hard to see how the delivery of the petitions could be anything but a general scramble. The best Liberal papers, however, discourage it, and it will probably not come off.

## Fine Arts.

### PICTURES ON EXHIBITION.

MR. DERBY has opened very pleasant art galleries at 845 Broadway, and has "inaugurated" them by exhibiting the collection of pictures which was formed by Mr. Wright, of Hoboken, a collection chiefly known because of one picture, the "Horse Fair," by Miss Rosa Bonheur. This large picture hangs now at the west end of Mr. Derby's largest room, of which it occupies the whole width. There is no doubt in any one's mind that the picture is powerful and interesting. In some respects, and for some good qualities, it is even worthy of study. But such praise has been lavished upon it on occasion of former exhibitions, both here and in Europe, as belongs only to the greatest works of art; and this praise has been as mistaken as indiscriminate censure would be. The picture has nothing that makes it a great work of art. It is not even good art in any high and permanent sense. It does not pretend to be a work of color. It is not of unusual or surpassing excellence in drawing, nor are thoroughness and completion in drawing even attempted except in the nearest figures. The action, without being unnatural or theatrical, is often strained; and a general sense pervades the scene of immense exertion with no result but dust. There are plenty of weaker pictures, but some even of these the world could less easily spare. The great majority of female artists paint worse, and nearly all of them draw less forcibly; but after all, there has as yet been no female artist who could draw the human figure (for example) adequately, and none who has shown any power of color-composition on a large scale. The highest artistic powers, possessed by few, have never been manifested by women. And the accordance to Miss Bonheur of the highest place among women painters, and to Mrs. Browning of the highest place among women poets, does not include the ascription to those artists of power to produce great and immortal works of art. For the picture before us, meritorious as it is, there are better animal painting, better color, better landscape, better action and movement and stir, better human faces, better composition and picture-making, and better results from the union of these merits, or some of them, to be seen elsewhere and without going far. All of which in no way denies that the picture is valuable. It is well that this work of art is here in America, and is to remain here. But it is not well to go on praising it as if it were of extraordinary worth.

Mr. G. H. Boughton's little picture, "The Ambush," is a pleasant one to see, and it is good to compare it with the more recent and more highly finished "Hester Prynne" of the last Artists' Fund Exhibition. Mr. Boughton can paint a great deal better now than he did when this "Ambush" was painted. He now gives to snow and dresses and buildings and faces an appearance of reality very different from the shadowy suggestions of the same things in this picture. But the boys in the ambush seem to have been very positive existences in the painter's mind, faintly as they are shadowed forth on his canvas; very pleasant existences, too, "jolly companions every one," heartily fond of snow-balling and brimming full of mischief.

The picture called "The Village Perambulator," by Jules Adolphe Breton, of Paris, a celebrated painter now, but one of whose other work we have little knowledge, is very delightful, and probably the best picture in the collection. It curiously reminds the spectator of the recent pictures of Winslow Homer, though Mr. Homer draws better bare feet than those of the children in the picture before us. The breadth of ripening grain, with the squat church tower rising in the distance above the golden surface, and this group in the foreground, mother and children making the baby happy with corn-flowers and scarlet poppies, are as foreign to American soil as they are near to American and all human sympathies. We have no church towers like that, and if a good village church should somewhere be visible, it would not be five hundred years old, which we take to be about the age of this one before us. Nor do we have scarlet poppies in our grain fields—we

only wish we had; but they grow with the wheat in Europe, from Yorkshire to Tuscany. We have no distinctive costumes, and probably never shall have; so that Mr. Homer will deserve our thanks if he will paint for us, with the accuracy he believes in and practises, and with the power he has gained by work, some of the beautiful things which we have not and which Europe is soon to lose for ever. His errand in Europe we hope is to do that. If he can do what he has done with American volunteers' uniforms and young ladies' dresses and hats, in Virginia camps and among New England hills, we shall have good things to expect as the results of his labors among the lake valleys of Switzerland, and in the as yet not rebuilt cities of Italy, and wherever there yet linger traces of national and distinctive costume. There was enough for him to do here, but there is also much that he can do to good purpose in Europe, and there is no use in denying that there are beautiful things for him to study, which America has not and never will have.

The "historical" picture called here "The Diamond Studs," painted by J. N. Robert-Fleury, illustrating a very well known scene in the history of Anne of Austria, is one of those absurd pictures which have absolutely no artistic rank at all. M. Robert-Fleury is a very old man, if he still lives, and even in 1859, when this picture was painted, the strength he once had was gone. He was once a draughtsman of considerable power, and a historical painter of merit according to the last-century French standard of merit. But this picture has nothing but the pompous architecture of the background to give it even academical excellence. The drawing is as feeble as the composition or the expression of faces. There is no realization of the scene or attempt at historical truthfulness or possibility. The group is that of the operatic stage, with chorus and performers of wood. For the matter of color, which the artist's admirers think he gave his heart to in his age, the principal figures are invested in a uniform of purplish pink of which we never saw the like before, lights and shadows almost alike in hue; other parts of the picture are in a wholly different key, as notably some figures on the left, which are like stray bits of a ruddy brown picture; there is not a smallest passage of delicate gradation, or an enjoyable scrap of pure and brilliant color, anywhere on the canvas. The whole work is almost below the reach of criticism, because hardly worthy to be called "art" more than the scrawling of a child on a slate.

Mr. Eastman Johnson's great and rapid improvement in the technical qualities of his art can best be judged by comparing his recent work, even the slightest of it, with this well-known and deservedly popular picture, painted only seven years ago. During those seven years the strong and dextrous painter has come into existence. It is especially delightful to see that this advance is not more marked in the faces and figures of men and women than in the slightest details; to see that this good and true painter has never lost sight of the rule, to paint everything as well as it can be painted. We do not know if this be his avowed principle of action; but he practises it in company with the good painters of most schools and eras, and with the great of all.

Mr. Leutze's "Lady Godiva" is here, and is one of the most offensive pictures that has ever been shown to the public. A coarse and vulgar woman, ill-drawn, worse painted, impossibly posed upon a very awkward horse, her streaming yellow hair without beauty of flow or of color, her blush a rough red wash; the lady of this picture seems to have been studied from an inferior circus-woman in tights. The painter seems to have imagined the scene as taking place in the seventeenth century; or so we read the meaning of the badly-designed architecture on the right. The half-timbered houses on the left have the look of a rather careful study from a tinted lithograph, which they strongly resemble in color. But all the valueless accessories are of little harm to a picture whose very essence is vulgarity. It seems to have been painted in close following of Tennyson: here are the famous "three tall spires," the "little wide-mouthed heads upon the spout," the "barking cur" who "made her cheek flame," and the other details of the poet's picture; but the painter's picture has none of the refinement which the noble legend demands and which the poet has given.

### MR. AVERY'S SALE.

MR. S. P. AVERY's collection of pictures was sold on Monday night, and the sale marks the breaking up of the pleasant art gallery and the useful art agency which has been for several years at the corner of Fourth Street and Broadway. Mr. Avery goes to Europe, as everybody knows, to hang American pictures at the French exhibition. But one returns from Europe nowadays; and we shall hope that a new art agency with larger facilities, and a gallery with a fuller and more frequently changing exhibition will



come of the journey. Mr. Avery will have it in his power to be of even greater use to American art than he has hitherto been, and we shall anxiously watch for his return.

## Correspondence.

### MR. BARTLETT'S AND MR. FRISWELL'S FAMILIAR QUOTATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

DEAR SIR: Two years ago, Mr. J. Hain Friswell, of London, prepared a book of quotations entitled "Familiar Words." The "North American Review" of July, 1865, and the "London Bookseller" of August, 1866, in noticing the book, charged Mr. Friswell with a dishonest appropriation of the fruits of my labors. In reply to the charge of the London periodical, Mr. Friswell says:

1. "Mr. Bartlett's book was virtually a reprint of the 'Hand-Book of Familiar Quotations,' published by Mr. Murray in 1853."
2. "Bartlett's volume adopts the title, plan, and quotations of its predecessor."
3. "Mr. Murray's begins with the Bible, and so does Bartlett's; and the quotations in both books are the same in the Scriptures, Shakespeare, Pope, etc."

To this I will only answer, that it will clearly appear, from an examination of the authors instanced by Mr. Friswell, that my book, so far from being a reprint of any other, is quite different. The "Hand-Book" has 216 lines from the Scriptures and 314 lines from Pope. Mine has 313 lines from the Scriptures, and the number of corresponding lines is 168; the number of corresponding lines from Pope is 112; and even for this degree of similarity I am but to a small extent indebted to my predecessor. The titles of the books are different. The plan adopted in each, of placing all the quotations from each author under his name, is the same; for this, however, I was not indebted to the English work, a copy of which I never saw until my book was going to press. My obligations to that work I properly acknowledged in the preface to my first edition of 1855, as follows:

"This collection, originally made without any view of publication, has been considerably enlarged by additions from an English work on a similar plan."

"Though perhaps imperfect in some respects, it is believed to possess the merit of accuracy, as the quotations have been taken from the original sources."

My fourth edition, which has formed the basis of Mr. Friswell's book, contains nearly three times as much matter as the English book referred to by him.

His obligations to me Mr. Friswell curtly sums up as follows: "Mr. Bartlett's fourth edition first suggested to me the idea of my own volume. I took from it several quotations, unfortunately, as in those alone do I find any blunders."

In reply to this I will merely state that eight impressions were printed of my fourth edition. A quite careful comparison of the seventh impression of my book with Mr. Friswell's shows *more than three hundred blunders* in his, and in mine *less than twenty*. As for the matter taken from me, which he would have his readers understand was limited to a few quotations at most, I find the whole of my volume of 410 pages in his book, *excepting only sixty-five quotations*. All of his notes, to which he calls attention in his preface as showing instances of parallel passages, are to be found in my book with the exception of four only; and these occur on pages 9, 122, 135, 196. His notes of a different nature also are copied from me, with the exception of twenty-four referring to matter added by him; and some of my material I find with the abbreviation "Ed." subjoined. A note of his on page 303, "See Spenser, *ante*, page 30," has no meaning whatever in his book, but is appropriate in mine.

Mr. Friswell has stated, in his preface to his first edition, "It is believed that no other work exists in the English language at once so copious and exact;" and in the preface to his second edition, that "its merit is recognized as being the work of a man of letters, as distinguished from that of a mere book-maker." The following specimens of blunders made by him in using my book will show the value of these claims. Thus, he takes names from the running title or head-line of my page, and appends them to quotations, without verification, which has led him into the blunder of assigning passages from well-known authors sometimes to "Miscellaneous," and at other times, where two authors are given on the same page in my book, the name of the last only being placed at the top, he takes a quotation from the first and attributes it to the latter; e.g., Thomson and Dyer occur

on page 229; the head-line is Dyer; he copies "Rule Britannia" and assigns it to Dyer. Thus he gives:

- Page 12. Longfellow's "Resignation" to Holmes.  
 " 36. Herrick's "Seek and Find" to Lovelace.  
 " 49. Lyttelton's "Soliloquy" to Moore.  
 " 54. Herbert's "Sin" to Suckling.  
 " 75. Thomson's "Rule Britannia" to Dyer; a singular blunder in an Englishman.  
 " 114. Lowell's "Changeling" to Key.

In all his copying from me he abounds in similar blunders; thus he gives the wrong numbers to lines by using the number belonging to the quotation following or preceding the one copied, for instance:

- "And prove their doctrine orthodox."—*Hudibras*, Part 1, Canto 1, Line 199.  
 "Compound for sins they are inclined to."—*Hudibras*, Part 1, Canto, Line 215.

Friswell copies the first line and gives it as line 215. Nor is he more exact in respect to his references of the quotations to the various authors and their different works, plainly from the same carelessness in copying; such as:

- Page 31. "Elegy on a Mad-dog, ch. xxiv," for "Vicar of Wakefield, ch. xxiv."  
 " 137. Byron, "Last Times," for "Monody on Sheridan. Last Lines."  
 " 144. Byron, "Prisoner of Chillon," for "Byron's Darkness."  
 " 179. Addison's "Letter from Italy," for "Addison's Ode."  
 " 295. Shakespeare, "Induction, Act I, Sc. 1," for "Taming the Shrew, Act 1, Sc. 1."  
 " 321. Thomson, "The Seasons: Winter," for "Thomson's Hymn."

Finally, upon comparing, with my index, the "certain prominent words which remain on the surface of the memory," which Mr. Friswell has placed in italics, I cannot help feeling that this part of my book formed the staple of all his labors and the basis of all his research. Mr. Friswell seems to have acquired no accuracy by experience; and for the greater part of his corrections he is indebted to his critics. His second edition abounds in errors; and many might be added to the long list already pointed out by the "Bookseller," as found in the first 113 pages.

My book first appeared in 1855, and was published anonymously until ten thousand copies were disposed of, when, at the request of my publishers, my name was added to it.

I am under great obligations to many kind friends; but to no book of a similar character other than that already referred to am I at all indebted, and my whole obligation to that does not exceed a tenth part of the material of my fourth edition.

JOHN BARTLETT.

CAMBRIDGE, JANUARY, 1867.

### THE SUPREME COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In your short article of the 24th inst. on the proposed limitation of the powers of the Supreme Court, you have not, it appears to me, viewed the case with your usual judgment. The disposition to reverence things because they are old clings to us all very strongly, but the events now transpiring are fast unsettling our faith in the infallibility of our forefathers.

Judges are but men, swayed as other men are by their passions, their prejudices, and, we have of late had too much reason to discover, by their party connections. Does any person suppose that even in England, which vaunts herself so highly on the purity of her courts, decisions such as those of which our country so justly complained would have been made if the judges had not been corrupted, shall I say, by their prejudices in favor of the rebels? In this country everyday experience proves that our courts are not free from such influences. The State of Pennsylvania was saved by the election of Judge Agnew from being placed in opposition to the national Government on the subject of the draft, and that the United States Supreme Court is not free from similar influences we have certainly had mournful proof. The infamous *decision* in the Dred Scott case will remain a standing memorial of the baseness of the majority of the court at that time. Some of that majority still occupy seats on the bench.

A law of Congress is enacted by the concurrent action of both Houses and signed by the President, or, if he interpose his veto, by a majority of two-thirds of both branches of the legislature; yet a mere majority of the judges, five out of nine, can set aside a statute which has been passed, unanimously if you please, by both Houses, and has received the sanction of the President, and that by their mere votes, for they are not required to give written opinions. The arguments of the *minority* may be unanswerable, but the votes of the majority, supported as they were in the case

above mentioned by arguments which were enough to make a person who had any regard for the character of the court blush with shame, settle the case. True, the good sense of the nation, no thanks to the court or to the rule under which they act, has proved that their decisions are not "final."

When a law of doubtful propriety has been passed, it may be repealed; but "a Supreme Court decision is for all practical purposes final." Surely you could not have been serious in offering this as an argument in favor of the present rule. To my mind it is one of the strong points against it. Shall a mere majority, five out of nine, have power to decide finally the important political questions of the day against the great body of Congress, supported as they are by a vast majority of the people and by the settled opinion of the nation? Were they as incorruptible as angels they would hardly be worthy of such trust; and surely when men who disgraced themselves by being parties to the infamous Dred Scott decision sit on the bench, some bounds should be set to their power.

Nor does the argument, "that in every case tried, some one man, plaintiff or defendant, would have to submit his case to a tribunal in which the chances against him would be as three to one or as two to one," even were it sound, which a little reflection will prove it is not, have any weight in my mind. The proposed rule applies only in cases in which the validity of a law of Congress is called in question. In a majority of such cases the *private* parties have *public* ends to answer by such suits. The controversy generally arises after the law has been passed, and no man has a right to base his conduct on the assumption that a law of the land is unconstitutional. But aside from this, how does the case stand? Either the judges are upright, unbiassed by party ties and by their prejudices, or they are not. If they are, then every man has a court which he may confidently trust with a righteous cause. If they are not, surely a mere majority, irresponsible save through the almost impossible means of impeachment, should not have the power to override the other branches of the government and settle the policy of the nation finally. As well make them a permanent committee on reconstruction and do away with the tedious process of legislation. Much expense would thus be saved, and, as the court is at present constituted, the whole question would doubtless be settled more to the satisfaction of the President and his rebel friends.

Yours,

S. A.

DELAWARE WATER GAP, JANUARY 28.

[A most extraordinary argument. Of course controversies as to the

constitutionality of a law arise after the law has been passed, but the subject of the controversy may have existed, and generally does exist, long before, and if every man is bound to assume that an act of Congress once passed is constitutional as to all that happens after its passage, of course the constitutional restrictions on Congress are a farce.

Where did "S. A." get the notion that "upright judges, unbiassed by party ties and by their prejudices," are sure to agree on points of law, or that a majority against the constitutionality of an act are sure to be base? We are utterly opposed to having great political questions decided by the Supreme Court; all we say is, that we do not think that Mr. Williams's plan for preventing the usurpations of the court a good one. We do not think a "permanent committee" of eight a whit more likely to be right than a permanent committee of five, while it would be nearly twice as difficult to get a decision from it if unanimity were necessary.—ED. NATION.]

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Statement of its Affairs on the 31st  
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Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1866, to 31st December, 1866	\$3,282,021 26
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1866	2,188,325 15

Total amount of Marine Premiums	\$10,470,346 41
---------------------------------	-----------------

No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1866, to 31st December, 1866

Losses paid during the same period	\$5,683,895 05
------------------------------------	----------------

Returns of Premiums and Expenses

and Expenses	\$1,194,173 23
--------------	----------------

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	\$6,771,885 00
---	----------------

Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,129,350 00
---------------------------------------	--------------

Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages	221,260 00
-------------------------------------	------------

Interest, and sundry notes and claims due the Company, estimated at	141,866 24
---	------------

Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	3,837,735 41
------------------------------------	--------------

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------------------------	-----------------

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